




## LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

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## PREFACE.

Our aim has been to prepare, within moderate compass, a complete Latin grammar, to be used from the beginning of the study of Latin until the end of a college course. The whole has been composed from our own point of view, and is, in all essentials, a new and independent work. But we have used freely the standard authorities, as well those of the older scholastic as of the newer critical and scientific schools. In several points, particularly the topical arrangement of the Syntax, we have followed the outline sketched a few years ago by Professor Allen, of the University of Wisconsin.

We have endeavored to adapt the scientific (philological) method of inflection by stem and termination to the system used by the Romans themselves and handed down by general custom to our time. While the five Declensions are retained, with the old distinctions on which they are founded, at the same time the urue philological difference, that of stems, is fully exhibited as the real basis of noun-forms. In the same way the true distinctions of verb-stems are adapted to the existing four Conjugations. We have preferred this to the "crude-form" system, partly because of the practical difficulty that our lexicons do not give
stems, but words; chiefly, however, from the inherent difficulty of a crude-form system in a language so decayed as the Latin.

In respect to the actual forms of the language, we have not thought it necessary to go back of Neue's "Formenlehre," upon which we have relied, and which teachers will find digested so far as seems to come within the limits of a work like the present.

In the Syntax, our design has been to leave no principle untouched which a student needs during his school and college course. We have attempted to show, as far as possible, the reason and origin of constructions, for which purpose notes have been inserted where it seemed desirable. Many things in the treatment of the Subjunctive, of the Protasis and Apodosis (in which we have followed Professor Goodwin's analysis), of Temporal particles, of the Infinitive and Participles, and much of the matter of the notes, appear for the first time in a school-book, and are the results of the authors' own investigations in Comparative Grammar. The Syntax is illustrated by upwards of a thousand examples cited from classical authorities, principally from Cicero; besides nearly as many brief phrases in illustration of minor points, particularly the use of prepositions and cases.

In Prosody and Versification we have taken a little wider range than usual, so as to enable the student to read metrically any poetry he will meet in his college course.

In the typography and mechanical arrangement of the page, we have sought to give every aid that can be rendered in that way to the easy comprehension of the subject. The sub-sections in larger type (num-
bered $1,2,3, \& c$.) contain of themselves a complete outline, and we think will be found sufficient, with the accompanying paradigms or examples, for a course of elementary study. Details of form or structure, requiring to be committed to memory only as they occur in reading, are put in smaller type, marked $a, b, c$, \&c. And the points of philology, or special criticism, which appear to throw valuable side-light upon the subject, interesting chiefly to teachers or special students, are contained in the form of Notes, not interfering at all with the treatment in the text. By paying attention to this subordination of topics, teachers will avoid the serious error of crowding upon the student, prematurely, a mass of details, which might only perplex and obscure his real understanding of the subject.

Cambridge, April, 1872.

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For the convenience of those who may wish to follow out special lines of study in general or comparative grammar, or to consult original sources on the history and development of the Latin, a list of works including the best and most recent authorities is here subjoined:-
Bopp: Vergleichende Grammatik des Sanskrit, etc. [Indo-European languages]. 4 vols. 3d Ed. Berlin, 1868-70.
The original standard work on Comparative Forms. Later researches have corrected some erroneous details. English translation (poor), London: 1862. The best form is a French translation, with Notes and Introductions by Miehel Bréal. Paris: 1866.
Corssen : Aussprache, Vokalismus und Betonung der Lateinischen Sprache. 2 vols. 2d Ed. Leipzig, 1868.
The greatest work on Latin alone, treating the language in reference to its own individual development, particularly as to the sounds (Lautlehre). In the comparative portion, it needs the correction of other investigators.
Curtius, G.: Grundzüge der Griechischen Etymologie. 3d Ed. Leipsic : 1869.

Treats of Latin only by comparison; but is one of the most valuable works on the general subject.
-_Erläuterungen zu meiner Griechischen Schul-grammatik. 2d Ed. Prag. 1870. English translation ("Elucidations"), London: 1870. Notes giving in connection with the Greek Grammar the simplest view of the doctrine of forms.
Delbruck: Das Conjunctiv und Optativ, im Sanskrit und Griechischen. Halle: 1871.
Origin of the Moods treated scientifically; should be read in connection with a notice in N. A. Review, Oct. 1871, and "Analysis of the Latin Subjunctive," by J. B. Greenough, Cambridge, 1870.

- Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis im indischen, etc. Berlin, 1867. Origin of the various Ablative constructions.
Ferrar: Comparative Grammar of Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin. London : 1869. Vol. I., including as far as Pronouns.
A convenient hand-book in English.
Fick : Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen. Göttingen: 1870.

[^0]languages. It can be used without a knowledge of German. No such book, however, is safe to use without careful study of the laws of consonant and vowel changes.
Hoffmann : Die Construction der Lateinischen Zeitpartikeln. Vienna: 1860 (Pamphlet).
Kuhn : See Zeitschrift.
Lubbert: Die Syntax von Quom. Breslau: 1870.
Neue : Formenlehre der Lateinischen Sprache. 2d Ed. Stuttgart, 1866. Storehouse of all Latin forms, 1200 pages, containing the result of late textual criticism. The standard work.
Peile : Latin and Greek Etymology. 2d Ed. Macmillan: London and Cambridge, 1872.
Roby: A Grammar of the Latin Language, from Plautus to Suetonius. Macmillan: London and New York, 1871. Vol. I.
A thorough treatment of Latin Etymology on the principles of comparative grammar. Some errors have been pointed out in the N. A. Review, Jan. 1872.
Schleicher: Compendium der Vergleichenden Grammatik der IndoGermanischen Sprachen. 2d Ed. Weimar, 1866.

Schweizer-Sidler: Elementar- und Formenlehre der Lateinischen Sprache, für Schulen. Halle, 1869.
The best summary of the results of comparative grammar as applied to Latin in short compass (137 pages).
Williams: A Practical Grammar of the Sanskrit Lanquage. 3d Ed. Oxford, 1864.
A very convenient Sanskrit grammar, without some knowledge of which it is difficult to pursue the study of comparative grammar to advantage.
Zeitschrift fur vergleichender Sprachforschung. Edited by Dr. A. Kurn. Vols. I. to XX. Berlin, 1851-1871, and still continued.
The best essays on all disputed points of comparative Philology. Indispensable to correct theories of individual investigators. Each volume has an Index ; and there is also a general index to the first ten volumes.

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## LATIN GRAMMAR.

## PART FIRST.

## FORMS OF WORDS (ETYMOLOGY).

## 1. Alphabet.

The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, wanting $\mathbf{w}$.

Nore.-The letter $\mathbf{w}$ is found, however, in many modern Latin words, especially proper names.

1. Classification. - The letters of the alphabet are classified as follows:-
a. Vowels (litterae vocales, or voice-letters) : a, e, i, o, u, y. The following are Diphthongs (double-vowels): ae (æ), au, eu, oe ( $\propto$ ), ei, ui.
b. Consonants (litterae consonantes, i.e., sounding-with the vowels): 一
Mutes : Labial surd p sonant b spirant $\mathbf{f}(\mathrm{v})$ nasal m

| Lingual |
| :---: |
|  |  | Double Consonants, $\mathbf{x}(\mathrm{cs}), \mathrm{z}(\mathrm{ds})$.

Liquids : 1, m, n, r. - Sibilants : surd s, sonant z.
The letters $\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{j})$ and $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{v})$ at the beginning of a syllable before a vowel, also $\mathbf{u}$ in quis, suadeo, \&e., are Semi-vowels.

The consonants $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{z}$, are never used at the end of a word.
Note. - The Aspirate (or breathing) h follows in inflection the rule of palatals; and was originally, in many words, a harsh guttural ( $\mathbf{k h}$ ), like the Greek $\mathbf{X}$, or the Spanish $\mathbf{j}$. Its later sound was very slight, and in most languages derived from Latin has quite disappeared. Sometimes, as in aheneus (=aëneus), it seems to be used only to separate two vowels. It is not reckoned as a consonant in Prosody.
2. Early Forms. - The alphabet in the time of Cicero (N. D. ii. 37) consisted of "one and twenty letters." These were, -
a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, $\mathbf{x}$.
$y$ and $\mathbf{z}$ were added, in words derived from Greek. $i$ and $u$, when used as consonants (" semi-vowels "), having the sound of y and w, are generally written $\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ : as, juvenis for iuuenis.
a. In early use, c was not distinguished in form or sound from g. After the distinction was made, $\mathbf{C}$ was still used, conventionally, as the initial of names (Gaius, Gnaeus) beginning properly with $\mathbf{G}$. It came, in later use, to take the place of $\mathbf{k}$, which was retained only in abbreviations, or as the initial letter of a few words, as Kalendae, Karthago, in which it is followed by a.
b. Till after the age of Augustus, $\mathbf{u}$ was never, in good use, preceded in the same syllable by $u$ or $v$. In many words, as in volt, servos, o was written where later custom allows $u$; while c was regularly used for qu in such words as cum (for quum), ecus (for equus), relicus (for reliquus), locuntur (for loquuntur), and the like; also in cotidie (for quotidie), and a few other words. The old forms quom (for cum) and quor (for cur) are also found.
c. At the end of a few words, - as sed, apud, illud, $\mathbf{t}$ was anciently written instead of d . In words ending in -s, final s was often elided (Cic. Orat. 48), as in qualist (qualis-est); plenu' fidei (Senect. 1).
3. Changes. - Letters are often changed, according to general laws of inflection (vowel-increase), or to secure an easier or smoother sound (euphonic change) ; or have been altered or lost through long use (phonetic decay). Of such changes are the following: -
a. Vowels are strengthened in inflection and derivation (vowelincrease) : as, ăgo, ēgi (ef. tell, told); disco, dŏceo (cf. fall, fell; sit, set) ; pendo, pondus ; persŏno, persōna; perfidus, fīdus, foedus (cf. bind, band).

Note. - The primitive vowel-sound may be assumed to be a, as in father. Starting with this, and gradually contracting the palate, we form in succession the sound of $\mathbf{e}(\bar{a})$ and $\mathbf{i}$ (ee), leading to the semi-vowel $\mathbf{j}(y)$. By contracting the lips, we in like manner form the sound of $\mathbf{o}$ and $\mathbf{u}(o o)$, leading to the semi-vowel $\mathbf{v}(w)$. By contracting both palate and lips, we form the French sound of u, 一 in Greek $v$, and in Latin $y$. This, which is called the Vowel-Scale, is of great service in tracing the modifications of vowel-sounds. It may be represented thus:-

|  | $\mathbf{a}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $i, j$ | $\mathbf{y}$ | $\mathbf{o}, \mathrm{u}$ |

b. Vowels are weakened by negligent pronunciation for long periods of time (phonetic decay). Thus, on one side of the scale, a becomes $\mathbf{e}$, then $\mathbf{i}$; or, on the other, becomes $\mathbf{o}$, then $\mathbf{u}$; while $u$ and $i$ meet in the French $u(y)$ : as, agmen, agmĭnis; făcio, confĩcio, confectum; sălio, exsulto; sepělio, sepultus; ebur, ebŏris ; maxŭmus, maxĭmus (cf. master, mister, mistress).
c. Two vowels coming together are contracted into a single sound: as, obit (obiit), cogo (co-ago), nil (nihil), debeo (dehībeo), coetus (coïtus), ingenī (cf. mayhem, maim).
d. The semi-vowels $\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are lost before a vowel, contraction sometimes also taking place: as, ōbicit (ŏbjicit), cōnicit (conjicit), cunctus (conjunctus), rursus (reversus), contio (conventio), mōtum (mð̌řtum).
$\boldsymbol{e}$. Between two vowels, or before $\mathbf{m}$ or $\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{s}$ becomes $\mathbf{r}$ : as, genus, generis; maereo, maestus; veternus (vetus-nus), carmen (casmen).
$f$. When two consonants come together by derivation, inflection, or composition, an easier pronunciation is secured thus :-

1. The first is entirely assimilated to the second. Thus, a liquid, - $\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}$, or (less frequently) $\mathbf{r}$-before another liquid is changed to that liquid [but $\mathbf{r}$ is not changed to $\mathbf{m}$ or $\mathbf{n}$ ]: as, collego (con-lego), corř̆go (com-rĕgo), illudo (in-ludo), ilľ̌co (in lơco), intellĕgo (inter-lĕgo), asellus (asin[u]lus). So d before 1: as in lapillus (hupidulus); and b (rarely) before a liquid: as, summitto (submitto).
2. The former is assimilated in kind. Thus :-a. A sonant before a surd becomes surd : as, tego, texi $(x=c s)$, tectum ; nubo, nupsi, nuptum ; coquo, coxi, coctum. - b. A surd before a sonant becomes sonant, as in segmentum (seco).-c. A labial nasal before a dental mute sometimes becomes dental: contendo (com-tendo), jandudum ( jam dudum), quantus (quamtus).- $d$. A dental nasal before a labial sometimes becomes labial: as, impono (in-pono). -e. d and t before $\mathbf{t}$ sometimes become $\mathbf{s}$ (see 4): as, equester (equet-ter), est (edt).
3. The former is lost, having probably been first assimilated. Thus:-a. d and $\mathbf{t}$ are lost before $\mathbf{s}$, but sometimes only assimilated: as, pedes (pedets), vas (vads, vadis), esse (edse, edo).-b. cand g are lost before $\mathbf{t}$ and $\mathbf{s}$ when $\mathbf{l}$ or $\mathbf{r}$ precedes: as, sartus ( $=$ sarctus, sarcio), mulsi (=mulgsi, mulgeo), indultus ( $=$ indulgtus, indulgeo). $-c$. $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{g}$ are sometimes lost before $\mathbf{m}$ and $\mathbf{n}$ : as, exämen (exagmen), luna (hucna), lumen (luc-men).
4. The second is partially assimilated to the first (as in English wrecked becomes, in pronouncing, reckt) ; in this case both are often changed. Thus, after $\mathbf{n}$ and $\mathbf{1}$-rarely after other letters - $\mathbf{t}$ becomes $\mathbf{s}$ (the continued sound corresponding to the explosive $\mathbf{t}$ ): as, mansus (=mantus, maneo), pulsus (pello), casus (cado), passus (=pattus, patior), sparsus (=spargtus, spargo), tensus (tendo, but also tentus), fixus ( figo, but fictus from fingo), maximus (for mag-timus), lapsus (labor), passus (pando).

Note.-After m, before $\mathbf{s}$ or $\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{p}$ is inserted for euphony: as, sumo, sumpsi, sumptum. So hiemps for hiems.
I. Especially the final consonant of prepositions was assimilated to the initial consonant of verbs.

Thus, ad is assimilated before $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{t}$; less regularly before $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}$, and rarely before $\mathbf{m}$; while before $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{q}$, the form $\mathbf{a d}$ is to be preferred; - $\mathbf{a b}$ is not assimilated,-but may take the form a, $\mathbf{a u}$, or abs; - in com (con, co), $\mathbf{m}$ is retained before $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{m}$; is assimilated before $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}$; is changed to $\mathbf{n}$ before $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{q}$, $\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{v}$; varies between $\mathbf{m}$ and $\mathbf{n}$ before $\mathbf{p}$; is sometimes assimilated (otherwise $\mathbf{n}$ ) before $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{1}$; and loses the final $\mathbf{m}$ in conecto, co niveo, conitor, conubium; -in usually changes $\mathbf{n}$ to $\mathbf{m}$ before $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{m}$, $\mathbf{p}$; before 1 the better orthography retains $\mathbf{n} ;-\mathbf{o b}$ and sub are assimilated before $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{p}$, and sometimes before $\mathbf{m}$; sub also before $\mathbf{r}$; and, in early Latin, $\mathbf{b}$ of these prepositions sometimes becomes $\mathbf{p}$ before $\mathbf{s}$ or $\mathbf{t}$. The inseparable amb loses $\mathbf{b}$ before a consonant, and $\mathbf{m}$ is sometimes assimilated;-circum loses $\mathbf{m}$ before a vowel;-s of dis before a vowel becomes $\mathbf{r}$, and before a conso nant is lost or assimilated ; - the $\mathbf{d}$ of red and sed is generally los before a consonant.

Note. - In most of these cases the later editions prefer the unaltered forms throughout; but the changes given above have good authority. Others, which are corruptions of the middle ages (as assum for $a d s u m$ ), would better be avoided.
h. The combinations ci and ti before a vowel are found inter changed in many words : as in nuntius or nuncius; contio or con. cio; but in these cases only one is correct: as, contio, dicio.

Note. - The substitution of $\mathbf{c}$ for $\mathbf{t}$ is an example of phonetic decay, and belongs to a later period of the language. In Italian, z and in Spanish, $\mathbf{c}$, has regularly taken the place of $\mathbf{t}$ in such combi nations : as in nazione, nacion. The sound of $\mathbf{s}$ (assibilation) or of $\mathbf{s l}$ traceable in them led gradually to the adoption of this as the regula sound of $\mathbf{c}$ before $\mathbf{e}$ or $\mathbf{i}$.
i. The aspirate $\mathbf{h}$ is occasionally used to indicate the haro sound of c , as in pulcher for pulcer. Many words are writter sometimes with and sometimes without an initial h : as, arene or harena, ariolor or hariolor, erus or herus. The combina tions ph, th, are found only in words taken from the Greek.

7c. The following words are variously spelt in different editions inferior or rejected forms being marked $\dagger$ : -

Adolescens, adulescens ; ancora, $\dagger$ anchora ; annulus, anulus; arctus artus ; cœсиs, cacus ; calum, colum ; cceruleus, coruleus ; causa, caussa cospes, cespes; ceteri, $\dagger$ coeteri ; cæna, coena, cena; condicio, $\dagger$ conditio; con junx, $\dagger$ conjux; contio, $\dagger$ concio; dicio, $\dagger$ ditio; dumtaxat, duntaxat; epi stola, epistula; eumdem, eundem ; exsisto, existo (and other compound of ex before s) ; femina, †formina; fenus, fcenus, fonus; heres, $\dagger$ heres haedus,$\dagger$ hoedus ; hiems $(p s)$, $\dagger$ hyems ; idcirco, $\dagger$ iccirco ; immo, imo ; inclutus $\dagger$ inclytus ; intellego, intelligo ; lacrima, †lacryma; litera, littera; litus, $\dagger$ lit tus; lubet, libet ; moror, mocror; milia, $\dagger$ millia; multa, mulcta; $\dagger$ nce, ne nequidquam, nequiquam; numquam, nunquam; †nuncio, nuntio; paullus paulus; quicquid, quidquid; religio, relligio; retuli, rettuli; silva, †sylva
solennis, solemnis ; solers, sollers; sulfur, †tsulphur; tamquam, tanquam; thesaurus, thensaurus; thus, tus; tiro, $\dagger$ tyro; umquam, unquam ; ungo, unguo; verto, vorto; also, the gerund-forms -endus or -undus; and the superlative -imus or -umus.

Note. - Many of the above variations are due to the practice of writing from dictation, or by the ear, by which most MS. copies of the classics were made, - a single reader often dictating to numerous copyists, whose spelling was often corrupt, and without authority.
4. Combinations. - Two words are often united in writing, and sometimes in sound.
a. Conjunctions or other particles are thus connected: as in etenim, jamdiu, siquis, and siquidem.

So the adverbial combinations quare, quamobrem, \&cc., as in English nevertheless, notwithstanding.
b. The verb est, is, is joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, or when the two would be united by elision : as, homost, periculumst.
c. Similar contractions are found in vin' (visne), scin' (scisne), sis (si vis), sodes (si audes), as in English, don't, won't.
5. Syllables. - In the division of syllables, a single consonant between two vowels is to be written with the latter.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. This rule is usually extended to double consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, ho-spes, ma-gnus, di-xit.
b. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, ab-est, ob-latus.

Note. - Custom allows many other departures from the rule.
c. A syllable preceded by a vowel in the same word is called pure; when preceded by a consonant, impure.
d. An initial syllable ending, or a final syllable beginning, with a vowel, is called open; otherwise, it is called close.

## 2. Pronunciation.

1. Roman. - The Roman pronunciation of the Vowels was, no doubt, nearly like the Italian; which, with little variation, is that found in most of the continental languages of Europe. That of some of the Consonants is more uncertain. In the system of pronunciation founded on ancient
use, the long and short vowels are sounded respectively as follows:-

| $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ as in father. ăhà | ă as in fast. |
| :---: | :---: |
| , rein. | ,, met. |
| ,, machine. | pin |
| © ,, holy. | ¢ ," wholly. |
| $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$,, rude. | , full. |

Note. - It is probable that $\mathbf{y}$ (also $\mathbf{u}$ in maxŭmus, \&c.) was similar to the French u; it is usually, however, sounded like i.
a. The final or unaccented open sound of the vowels is nearly as in the last syllable of comma, yesterday, pity, hollow, cuckoo.
b. In Diphthongs, each vowel has its proper sound : thus, ae has nearly the sound of $a y$, au of ow, oe of oy, ui of we.
c. Of consonants, c and $g$ are always hard, as in can, give; $\mathbf{j}$ has the sound of $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{v}$ of $\mathbf{w}$, and $\mathbf{n}$ before palatals of $\mathbf{n g}$; the combination bs is like ps, ch like $\mathbf{k}$, and ph like $\mathbf{f}$.

Note. - The sound of the vowels and diphthongs, as above given, has been generally adopted in this country. In regard to the consonants $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{v}$, there is still considerable difference of usage.
2. Modern. - Modern custom has generally allowed Latin to be pronounced in each country according to the rules of its own language. What is known as the English Method adopts the following: -
a. The vowels and consonants have the same sound as in English. But there are no silent letters (except in scanning verse, by the usage called Elision) ; such words as dies, mare, audiere, pauperiēi, having each as many syllables as vowels or diphthongs.
b. By American custom, final a is pronounced in the Italian way, as in comma. But in the monosyllables a, da, sta, qua, some persons retain the English sound.
c. The diphthongs ae, oe, are pronounced like ee; au like aw; eu like $e w$; ei and ui like $i$ in kite; es and (in plural words) os at the end of a word, as in the English disease, morose.
d. The consonants $\mathbf{c}$ and g are made soft (like s and j ) before e, i, y, ae, oe, eu; ch is always hard, as in chasm.

## 3. Quantity.

1. Quantity is the relative time occupied in pronouncing a syllable, - a long syllable being equal to two short ones.

Note. - The distinction of Quantity was carefully observed by the ancients, but came to be almost wholly disregarded in later times except in the composition of Latin verse.
2. Some of the most general rules of quantity are the following: -
a. A vowiel before another vowel is short: as in vĭa, nĭhil.
b. A diphthong is long: as in aedes, foedus.
c. A syllable formed by contraction is long: as, mī (mihi) ; nīl (nihil) ; intrārat (intraverat); nēmo (nĕ hŏmo).

Note. - In many text-books and old editions, contraction is denoted by a circumflex : as, mî, intrârat.
d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants, or a double consonant, is long: as in rēctus, dūxit. Sometimes the vowel itself is made long, as before ns in praesēns.
e. A syllable in which a short vowel is followed by a mute with 1 or $\mathbf{r}$ is common, - that is, it may be long in verse: as, ălăcris.

Remark. - Many final syllables, originally long, are always found short in classic Latin: for example, the stem-vowel a of the first declension.

Note.-The sign ( ${ }^{-}$) denotes that a vowel is long; ( ${ }^{\vee}$ ) that it is short ; ( ${ }^{( }$) that it is common.

For particular rules of Quantity, see § 78.

## 4. Accent.

1. The accent of Latin words never falls on the final syllable, but is confined to one of the two preceding.
2. The following are general rules of accent:-
a. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first syllable: as, ě'rant, they were; dǐ'ēs, day.
b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, if that is long: as, ămi'cus, friend; if it is short or common, then on the Antepenult: as, dó'minus, ă'lacris.

Note. - The Penult is the last syllable but one; the Antepenult, the last but two.
c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, děă'que, ămārě've, tībi'ne, ită'que, and so, as distinguished from i'tăque, therefore.

Note. - The acute accent (') is sometimes used to denote stress of voice; the grave ('), to mark an adverb or conjunction; the circumflex ( ) , the ablative in a, the perfect in ēre, or a contracted syllable.

## 5. Inflection.

1. Inflection is a change made in the form of a word, to show its grammatical relations.
a. Changes of inflection sometimes take place in the body of a word, but oftener in its termination: as, vox, a voice; vōcis, of a voice; voco, I call; vŏcat, he, calls; vocāvit, he has called.
b. Terminations of inflection had originally an independent meaning, and correspond nearly to the use of prepositions or personal pronouns in English: thus, in vocat, the termination is equivalent to he or she; and in vōcis, to the preposition of.
c. Changes of inflection in the body of a verb usually denote relations of time or manner, and correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English: thus, in frangit (root frag-), he breaks or is breaking, the form of the word indicates Present time or continued action; while in frēgit, he broke or has broken, it indicates Past time or Completed action.
2. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the Stem.
a. The Stem contains the idea of the word without relations; but, in general, it cannot be used without some termination to express these. Thus the stem vōc- denotes voice; with -s added it becomes vox, a voice or the voice, as the subject or agent of an action; with -is it becomes vōcis, and signifies of a voice.
b. A still more primitive form, expressing the main idea less definitely, and common also to other words, either in the same or other languages, is called a Root. For example, the root sta is found in the Sanskrit tiš!hâmi, Greek iorque, Latin sistere and stare, German stehen, and English stand.

Again, the root of the stem vōc- is vorc, which means not to call, or I call, or calling, but merely call; and cannot be used to mean any thing without terminations. With $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ it becomes vocā-, the stem of the present vŏcāmus, we call; with āvi- it is the stem of the perfect vorcāvi, I called; with āto- it becomes the stem of the participle vocātos, called; with ātion- it becomes the stem of vocationis, of a calling. With its vowel lengthened it becomes the stem of vox, a voice (that by which we call) ; with ālis added it means belonging to a voice; with ǔla, a little voice.

Note. - Thus, in inflected languages, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time, long before Latin was a distinct language, were used alone to express ideas, as is now done in Chinese. Roots are modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become Words. The process by which they are modified, in the various forms of derivatives and compounds, is called Stem-building.
c. The Stem is sometimes the same with the Root: as in dŭc-is, fer-t; but is more frequently formed from the root, either (1) by changing or lengthening its vowel, as in rēg-is, dūc-o; (2) by the addition or insertion of a consonant, as in tendo, pango; (3) by the addition of a terminal vowel, as in fugis, fuga; or (4) by derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language.
d. The terminations of inflection are variously modified by combining with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, leading to the various forms of Declension and Conjugation.

Note.- A termination beginning with a vowel is called an open affix; one beginning with a consonant, a close affix. When a close affix is joined to a consonant-stem, there is usually either a euphonic change, as rexi for reg-si, or a vowel appears, as reg-i-bus. But in most cases, what is called a connecting vowel really belongs to the stem, as in voca-mus, regi-mus.
3. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of declension, to denote gender, number, and case; Adjectives and Adverbs, of comparison, to denote degree; and Verbs of conjugation, to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person.
4. Those parts of speech which are not inflected are called Particles: these are Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections, with Adverbs of time, place, and manner.

Note. - The term Particles is sometimes limited to such words as num, ne, an (interrogative), non, ne (negative), si (conditional), \&c., which are used simply to indicate the form or construction of a sentence. Interjections are not properly to be classed among parts of speech, and differ little from inarticulate sounds. For convenience, list is given of those in most common use, following the conjunctions (p. 95).

## 6. Gender.

1. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.
a. Natural gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, puer, boy; puella, girl; donum, gift.
b. Many masculine nouns have a corresponding feminine form: as, servus, serva, slave; cliens, clienta, client; victor, victrix, conqueror. Most designations of persons (as, nauta, sailor, miles, soldier), usually though not necessarily male, are masculine.
c. Grammatical gender is a like distinction where no sex exists in the object, and is shown by the form of the adjective joined with it: as, lapis magnus (м.), a great stone; manus mea (F.), my hand.
d. A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: as, mancipium tuum, your slave. Names of classes or bodies of persons may be of either gender : as, exercitus (m.), acies (F.), and agmen (N.), army ; and the feminine operae, workmen, copiae, troops.

Note. - What we call grammatical gender is in most cases the product of the imagination at a rude age, when language was in the course of growth. Thus a River was seen, or a Wind was felt, as a living creature, violent and strong, and so is masculine; a Month is a guide or divider of tasks, and so is masculine ; and the fable of Atlas shows how similar living attributes were ascribed to Mountains, which, in the northern fables, are the bones of giants. Again, the Earth, or a country or city, seems the mother of its progeny ; the Tree shelters and ripens its fruit, as a brooding bird its nest of eggs ; and, to this day, a Ship is always referred to by a feminine pronoun.

Again, in the East and South, the Sun, from its fierce heat and splendor, is masculine, and its paler attendant, the Moon, feminine; while, among northern nations, the Sun (perhaps for its comforting warmth) is feminine, and the Moon (the appointer of works and days) masculine. The rules of grammatical gender only repeat and extend these early workings of the fancy.
2. Names of Male beings, together with Rivers, Winds, and Mountains are masculine; names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine.

Note. - Most of the above may be recognized by their terminations, according to the rules of gender under the several declensions.
a. Names of Rivers are masculine, except a few, chiefly in a.

These are Albula, Allia, Druentia, Duria, Garumna, Matrŏna, Mosella; also Lethe and Styx. Many are variable.

Note. - Names of Months are properly Adjectives, the masculine noun mensis being understood.
b. Names of Towns, Islands, and Trees in us are feminine; also, many names of Plants and Gems in us.
c. Indeclinable nouns, Terms or Phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their forms, are neuter : as, nihil, nothing; gummi, gum ; scire tuum, your knowing; triste vale, a sad farewell; hoc ipsum diu, this same word diu; illud ruisse, illud ardēre (Plin.), that crash, that blaze.
3. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, exsul, exile; bos, ox or cow.

Note. - When a noun signifying a thing without life is both masculine and feminine, - as, dies, day ; finis, end, - it is sometimes said to be of Doubtful Gender.
4. A few names of animals are always connected with adjectives of the same gender, either masculine or feminine, independent of sex. They are called Epicene.

Thus lepus, hare, is always masculine, and vulpes, fox, feminine. To denote a male fox we may say, vulpes mascula; or a female hare, lepus femina.

## 7. Case.

There are in Latin six Cases, which express the relations of nouns to other words. They are usually put in the following order: 1. Nominative; 2. Genitive ; 3. Dative ; 4. Accusative ; 5. Vocative ; 6. Ablative.

1. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a proposition: as,
pater meus adest, my father is here.
2. The Genitive (of) is used like the English possessive ; also with many adjectives and verbs, especially those of memory or feeling: as,
patris ejus amīcus miserētur mei, his father's friend pities me.
3. The Dative (to or for) is the case of the Indirect Object, and is used to denote the person whose interest is concerned: as,
dedit mihi cultellum: magno mihi usui erat, he gave me a pocket-knife : it was of great service to me.
4. The Accusative (objective) is the case of the Direct Object, and is used after most prepositions : as, pater me ad se vocavit et in hortum duxit, [my] father called me to him, and led me into the garden.
5. The Vocative is used in address: as, huc vĕni, care mi filiǒle, come here, my dear little son.

Note. - As the Vocative is independent of the other words in a sentence, it is by some grammarians not reckoned as a Case.
6. The Ablative (by, from, with) is used with many verbs and prepositions, especially to denote separation or instrument: as,
in horto ludebāmus, et cultello me laesit, we were playing in the garden, and he hurt me with a knife.
Note. - All, excepting the nominative and vocative, are by the ancient grammarians called "Oblique Cases."
7. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where, generally the same in form as the dative (§55.3.c.) : as, Rōmae vel Athēnis esse velim, I should like to be at Rome or Athens.

## 8. Declension.

1. There are five Declensions, or modes of declining nouns. They are distinguished by the termination of the Genitive Singular, and by the final letter (characteristic) of the Stem.

a. The stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant-stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel-stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.

Note. - For the division of vowel and consonant-stems in the Third Declension, see § 11.
b. The Nominative of most masculine and feminine nouns (except in the first declension) is formed from the Stem by adding s.

Note 1. - Many, however, end in o, or in the liquids $1, n ; r,-$ the original s (sometimes with the final letter also) having been lost through phonetic decay. In some (as in filius) the stem-vowel is modified before the final $\mathbf{s}$; and in some, as in ager, a vowel is inserted in the stem.

Note 2. - The $s$ of the nominative is the remnant of an old demonstrative sa, which is found (with modifications) in the Sanskrit personal pronoun, in the Greek article, and in the English she.
2. The following are general Rules of Declension:-
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The Vocative is always the same with the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension.

Note. - In the first and second declensions the vocative ends in the (modified) stem-vowel. Most of the words likely to be used in address are of this form; and, in practice, few other words have a vocative.
b. In Neuters, the nominative and accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in ă.
c. Except in some neuters, the accusative singular always ends in m , and the accusative plural in $\mathbf{s}$.
d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the dative singular ends in $\mathbf{i}$.

* e. The dative and ablative plural are always alike.
$f$. The genitive plural always ends in um.

3. Case-Endings. The original terminations of the Cases, in Latin, were probably the following: -


Note. - These became so worn by use, and so united with the stem, that they are distinguishable only in consonant-stems. In some instances, one case was substituted for another, or two were merged in one. The combinations are given below as case-endings. The name "stem" is sometimes, conveniently though incorrectly, given to that part of the word - as serv- in servus - which precedes the case-ending.

N.B. Rare forms in parenthesis; Greek forms in italics.

## NOUNS.

## 9. First Declension.

The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in a. Latin nouns have the Nominative like the stem.

## SINGULAR.

Nom. stellă, a star. Gen. stellae, of a star.
Dat. stellae, to a star.
Acc. stellam, a star.
Voc. stellă, thou star !
Abl. stellā with a star.

PLURAL. stellae, stars. stellārum, of stars. stellis, to stars. stellās, stars. stellae, ye stars ! stellis, with stars.

1. Gender. Most nouns of the first declension are Feminine. Nearly all the exceptions are such as are masculine from their signification : as, nauta, sailor. Also, Hadria, the Adriatic.
2. Case Forms. - a. The genitive singular anciently ended in $\bar{a} i$, which is occasionally found in a few authors: as, aulāi. The same ending occurs in the dative, but only as a diphthong.
b. There is also an old genitive in ās, found in the word familias used in certain combinations, as, păter (māter, filius, filia) familias, father of a family, \&c.
c. The Locative form for the singular ends in ae, and for the plural in is: as, Romae, Athēnis.
d. The genitive plural is sometimes found in um instead of ārum, especially in compounds with -colla and -gĕna, signifying dwelling and descent: as, caelicorlum, of the heavenly ones.
e. The dative and ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, liberta, freed-woman, equa, mare, mula, she-mule, end in an older form -ābus. But, except when the two sexes (as in wills, \&c.) are mentioned together, the form in is is also used.
3. Greel Nouns.-Some Greek nouns (chiefly proper names) end in ās, ēs (M.), and $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ (F.) in the nominative, and $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{n}$ or $\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{n}$ in the accusative; those in $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ have the genitive in $\overline{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{s}$ (stem $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ or $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ ): as,

|  | comet (M | laurel (F.). |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. | comētes (a) | daphnē | TATnēās | Anchises |
| G. | comētæ | daphnēs ( $\because$ ) | Жnēæ | Anchisæ |
| D. | comētæ | daphnē (æ) | ※セne̊ | Anchis |
| Ac. | comēten(am) | daphnēn | \#nneān (am) | Anchisēn |
| V. | comētă | daphnē | ATnēā (a) | Anchīsē (ă) |
| Ab. | comētā (ē) | daphnē ( $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ) | Frnēā | Anchissē (a) |

Note. - This form is found only in the singular ; the plural is regular: as, comete, arum, \&c. It includes (besides proper names) about thirty-five words, several being names of plants; among others the following, those marked $\dagger$ having also regular forms in a :bule, council; geometres, geometer; † grammatice, grammar; harpe, sickle; magice, magic; †musice, music; †ode, ode; pandectes, repertory; † patriarches, patriarch; † prophetes, prophet ; sophistes, sophist ; $\dagger$ tetrarches, tetrarch ; thymele, leader's-stand; $\dagger$ tiaras, tiara.

## 10. Second Declension.

The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in 0 (as of vir, viro-, and of servus, servo-).

Note. - This form is an original $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$-stem, to which the $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$-stem of the first declension is the corresponding feminine.

1. The Nominative is formed from the Stem by adding s (in neuters m ), the characteristic or being weakened to $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$.
2. In most nouns whose stem ends in ro-, the $s$ is not added, but the $\mathbf{0}$ is lost, e being inserted before $\mathbf{r}$.

Thus ager, field (stem agro-), is the same as the Greek áypós. The exceptions are, hesperus, humerus, juniperus, morus, numerus, uterus.

SINGULAR.

| Nom. | Boy. <br> puĕr | Book. <br> lĭbĕr | Slave. <br> servŭs (Ŏs) | Giffl. <br> dōnum <br> Gen. puěrī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Note. - The old form os, om (for us, um), is sometimes used after $\mathbf{u}$ or $\mathbf{v}$ : as, servos, servom (§ 1. 2. b.).
3. Gender. - Nouns ending in us (os), er, ir, are Masculine (exc. on p. 16) ; those ending in um (on) are Neuter. (But which stems are M. or N. can only be learned from the Dictionary.)
a. But names of towns in us (os) are Feminine: as, Corinthus. Also, arctus (os), the Polar Bear; alvus, belly; carbăsus, linen (plural carbăsa, sails, N.); cơtus, distaff; hŭmus, ground; vannus, winnowing-shovel; with many names of Plants and Gems.
b. The following are Neuter: pelăgus, sea; virus, poison; vulgus (rarely m.), the crowd. 'Their accusative, as of all neuters, is the same as the nominative.
4. Case Forms. a. The Locative form for the singular of this declension ends in i: as, humi, on the ground; Corinthi, at Corinth. For the plural, is: as, Philippis, at Philippi.
b. The genitive of nouns in ius or ium is correctly written with a single i: as, fili, of a son; ingerni, of genius.

The same contraction occurs with the gen. sing. and the dat. and abl. plur. of nouns in āius and ēius : as, Grāis, Pompḕi.
c. Proper names in ius lose e in the vocative: as, Verǧ̌li; also, filius, son, genius, divine guardian ; and the possessive meus, $m y$ : as, audi, mi fili, hear, my son.
d. Greek names in ius have the vocative ie; and adjectives derived from proper names - as Lacedaemonius - also form the vocative in ie.
e. In the genitive plural, um (or, after $\mathbf{v}, \mathrm{om}$ ) is often found for ōrum, especially in poets.
f. Deus, god, has vocative deus ; plural, nominative and vocative dei or di (dii); dative and ablative deis or dis (diis).

For the genitive plural deorum, divum or divom (from divus) is often used.
5. The following stems in ěro, in which $\mathbf{e}$ belongs to the stem, retain e throughout: puer, boy; gener, son-in-law; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; with compounds in -fer and -ger: as, lūč̆fer, -fěri, light-bringer; armĭger, -gĕri, armor-bearer.
a. Vir, man, has the genitive viri; the adjective satur, sated, has satŭri; vesper has abl. vespere (loc. vesperi).
b. Liber, a name of Bacchus, also has Libĕri; so, too, the plar. līberi, children.
6. The following, which insert e, are declined like lĭber: ager, field; aper, boar; arbiter, judge; auster, south-wind; caper, goat; coluber, snake; conger,. sea-eel; culter, knife; faber, smith; fiber, beaver ; geometer, geometer ; magister, master ; minister, servant ; oleaster, wild-olive ; onager (grus), wildass; scomber (brus), mackerel.
7. Greek Nouns. a. Many Greek names in eus, as Orpheus (being of the third declension in Greek), have gen. ei or eos, dat. ei ; acc. ea; voc. eu; abl. eo.
b. Many in es, belonging to the third declension, have also a gen. in i: as, Thucydidi.
c. Some Greek names in er have a form in us : as, Teucer, Teucrus.
d. About twenty words have the Greek ending ofs (M. or r.) or ơn (N.): as, lōtos, water-lily; parēlion, mock-sun. Among these are the following: -

Barbitos (on), lyre; miltos, cinnabar; mythos, fable; nomos, district; rhythmos, rhythm; scopos, aim; spodos (F.), dross.

## 11. Third Declension.

Nouns of the Third Declension are most conveniently classed according to their Stems, whether ending in a vowel, a liquid, or a mute.

## I. Vowel-Stems.

1. Vowel-stems of this declension end in $\mathbf{i}$. Thus that of turris is turri-; and that of mare, mari-.
a. Nouns of this class are parisyllabic ; that is, the oblique cases of the singular have no more syllables than the nominative. (For exceptions in al, ar, see 2, c.)
b. A few stems ending in $\mathbf{u}$-, as of grus, sus, were treated as consonant-stems. (See III. 4, a.)
2. The Nominative, except in neuters, is formed from the stem by adding s.
a. About thirty nouns (as nubes) change $\overline{1}$ to $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ in the nominative (Compare Note, p. 22).

These are acinăces, alces, ceedes, cautes, clades, compaiges, contāges, crates, fames, feles, fides, labes, meles, moles, nubes, proles, propäges, sedes, sepes, sordes, strayes, subŏles, sudes, tabes, torques, tudes, vates, vehes, verres.
b. The nominative of a few stems in ri- does not add $\mathbf{s}$, but loses i, inserting e before r. These are imber, linter, uter, venter.
c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of $\check{\mathbf{r}}$ to $\check{\mathbf{e}}$. But, when $\mathbf{i}$ is preceded by al or ar, the $\mathbf{e}$ is lost (except in collare, mare, navale, tibiale).

Note. - This latter class were originally neuters of adjectives in alis, aris ; and, when used as adjectives, retain the e. They are the following: anて̌mal, cervīcal, cubřtal, putěal, toral, tribünal; calcar, cochlear, exemplar, lacūnar, laquear, lum̌̆nar, palear, pulvīnar, torcŭlar, vectīgal.

SINGULAR.

|  | Tover (F.). | Cloud (F.). | Sea (N.). | Spur (N.). |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. turrĭs | nūbēs | mărě | calcăr |  |
| Gen. turrĭs | nubĭs | marĭs | calcārĭs |  |
| Dat. turrī | nubī | marī | calcāri |  |
| Acc. turrim (em) | nubem | marĕ | calcăr |  |
| Voc. turrĭs | nubēs | marĕ | calcăr |  |
| Abl. turrī (ĕ) | nubĕ | marī | calcārī |  |

PLURAL.

| Nom. | turrēs | nubēs | maria | calcaria |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | turrium | nubium | marium | calcarium |
| Dat. | turrĭbus | nubībus | marïbus | calcarībus |
| Acc. | turrīs $(\overline{\text { ēs }})$ | nubēs | maria | calcaria |
| Voc. | turrēs | nubēs | maria | calcaria |
| Abl. | turrĭbus | nubĭbus | marĭbus | calcarībus |

3. Case Forms. a. The regular form of the accusative singular, M. and F., is im (as am, um, em of the other voweldeclensions). But, in most nouns, this was supplanted by the con-sonant-form em ; and it is only retained in the following: -
4. Exclusively (1) in Greek nouns and names of rivers; (2) in buris, cucŭmis, ravis, sitis, tussis, vis ; (3) in adverbs in tim (being acc. of nouns in tis), with partim and amussim;
5. Along with em in febris, restis, turris, secūris, sementis, and (in one or two passages) in many other words.
b. The regular form of the ablative singular is $\bar{i}$ (as in the other declensions $\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \overline{\mathbf{o}}, \overline{\mathbf{u}}, \overline{\mathbf{e}}$, with loss of the original $\mathbf{d}$ ). This was also supplanted by $\check{\text { é, and retained only - }}$
6. Exclusively (1) in those above having accusative in im ; also securis, and the following adjectives used as nouns : aqualis, annalis, aqualis, consularis, gentilis, molaris, primipilaris, tribulis; (2) in neuters (as above), except baccar, jubar, and sometimes (in verse) mare, rete;
7. Along with $\mathbf{e}$ in avis, clavis, febris, finis, ignis (always aquâ et igni interdici), imber, navis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sementis, striğ̌lis, turris; and the following adjectives used as nouns : affinis, bipennis, canalis, familiaris, natalis, rivalis, sapiens, triremis, vocalis.
8. The ablative of fames, hunger, is always of the Fifth declension. The defective mane, morning, has sometimes abl. mani.
9. Most names of towns in e-as Proneste, Care - and the mountain Soracte, have the ablative in e.
c. The regular nominative plural would be is, but this is rarely found. The regular accusative is is common, but not exclusively used in any word.
d. The regular genitive plural ium is retained by all except the following:-
(1) ambāges and volucris (always um) ; (2) vates (commonly um); (3) apis, ccedes, clades, subŏles (rarely um) ; (4) canis, juvĕnis, mensis, had not originally vowel-stems, and retain um ; but mensis has both.
10. Greelc Nouns. - A few Greek nouns in is have the acc. im or in, voc. $\mathfrak{1}$, abl. $\mathbf{1}$.

Many in ēs have forms of the First or Second Declension: as, Achilles, gen. ei or i, dat. i, acc. ēn, ea, voc. ě, abl. ī.

Note. - Nouns such as urbs, pars, having the genitive plural ium and the accusative (occaasionally) is, were originally vowel-stems.

## II. Liquid Stems.

In nouns whose stem ends in a liquid ( $\mathbf{l}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$ ), the nominative has no termination, but is the same as the stem, except when modified as follows:-
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Final n of the stem is dropped in masculines and feminines, except some Greek nouns: as, leōn-is, leo; legiōn-is, legio.
b. Stems ending in dĭn-, gin- (mostly feminine) retain in the nominative an original 0 : as, virgo. Those in in- preceded by any other consonant retain an original ě: as, carmĕn, ĭnis, N.; cornicen, ĭnis, M. (Exceptions IV. 2, b.)
c. Nouns whose stem ends in tr retain in the nominative an original e: as, pater (compare I. 2, b.).
d. In neuters whose stem ends in ĕr, $\begin{aligned} r \\ r\end{aligned}$ ŭr, the $\mathbf{r}$ was originally s , which is retained in the nominative, $\succ$ of the stem being weakened into ŭ: as, opŭs, ĕris: corpŭs, ơris. A few masc. and fem. stems also retain s. (Exceptions IV. 2, b.)
$\boldsymbol{e}$. Stems in 11, rr, lose one of these liquids in the nominative.
$f$. The following have gen. plur. ium: glis, mas, ren, mus.
$\checkmark$ Sing. Consul. Plur. $\downarrow$ Sing. 'Name. Plur.
Nom. consŭl consŭlēs nōměn nomĭna

Gen. consŭlis consŭlum Dat. consŭli consŭlĭbus Acc. consŭlem Voc. consŭl Abl. consŭle
nōměn nomĭna nomǐnis nomĭnum nomini nominibus nomen nomǐna nomen nomina nomine nominibus


## III. Mute Stems.

Masculine or feminine nouns whose stem ends in a Mute form the nominative by adding $s$. Neuters have for nominative the simple stem.

Note. - If the stem ends in two consonants, the genitive plural generally has ium (II. 8, N.). Some of these, originally i-stems, have also an old nominative in is: as, trabis, urbis.

1. Labial. If the mute is a labial $(b, p), s$ is simply added to the stem.
a. Stems in 1̆p- retain in the nominative an original $e$, the vowel having been weakened in the other cases : as, princeps, Ipis.
b. Most stems in cĭp- (m.) are compounds of the root căp (in capio) take: as, auceps (avi-ceps), bird-catcher.

In these the stem sometimes has the form cup-, as aucŭpis.
c. The only noun whose stem ends in $m$ is hiemps, winter. (For the insertion of p, see note, foot of p. 3.)
sing. City, f. plur. . sing. Chief. plur.

Nom. urbs urbes
Gen. urbis urbium Dat. urbi urbibus Acc. urbem urbes Voc. urbs urbes Abl. urbe urbibus
princeps princĭpis princǐpi princľpem princeps princǐpe
princǐpes princǐpum principibus princǐpes princǐpes principibus
2. Lingual. If the mute is a lingual ( $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}$ ), it is suppressed before s.
a. Stems in itt (M. or F.) retain in the nominative an original e: as, hospĕs, ĭtis. (In a few, as comes, the e is not original.)

Note. - The only nominative in ' $\mathbf{t}$ is caput, ttis.
b. Neuter stems ending in two consonants, and those ending in ăt- (Greek nouns), drop the final lingual in the nominative : as, cor, cordis; poēma, ătis.
sivg. Guard. plur.
Nom. custōs custōdes Gen. custōdis
Dat. custōdi
Acc. custōdem
Voc. custōs
Abl. custōde
custōdum custōdibus custōdes custōdes custodibus
sing. Companion. plur. coměs comǐtes comitis comitum comiti comytibus comitem comites comes comites comite comitibus

| Sing | Age, F . | Heart, m. | Stone, m. | Family, F. | Head, ${ }^{\text {s. }}$ | Poem, N . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. V. | ætas | cor | lapis | gens | caput | poēma |
| G. | ætātis | cordis | lapĭdis | gentis | capitis | poemătis |
| D. | ætāti | cordi | lapĭdi | genti | capiti | poemăti |
| A. | ætātem | cor | lapîdem | gentem | caput | poèma |
| A. | ætāte (i) | corde | lapîde | gente | capite | poemăte |
| Plur. <br> N. A. | V. ætātes | corda | lapĭdes | gentes | capǐta | poemà |
| G. | ætātum |  | lapídum | gentium | capitum | poemătum |
| D. Ab. | ætatibus | cordibus | lapídibus | gentibus | capitibus | poemătis (or ǐbus) |

c. Case-forms. Some nouns of lingual stems have forms of the vowel-declension.

1. Participles used as nouns, and a few others originally i-stems, occasionally have the ablative in i: as, continenti, cetati, parti, sorti.
2. Stems in tat- (originally $\mathbf{i}$-stems), nt- (participles used as nouns), d or t preceded by a consonant, - also dis, lis, and pons,- regularly have the genitive plural ium.
3. Names denoting birth or abode, with stems in at-, it- (originally adjectives), with penates, optimates, regularly have the gen. plur. ium.
d. Greek neuters (as poëma), with nom. sing. in a, frequently end the dat. and abl. plur. in is, and rarely the gen. in orrum.
4. Palatal. If the mute is a palatal ( $\mathbf{c}, \mathrm{g}$ ), it unites with $\mathbf{s}$ in the nominative, forming $\mathbf{x}$.
a. Stems in ǐc- (short i) have nom. in ex, and are chiefly masculine; those in ic- (long i) retain $i$, and are feminine.
b. In nix, nĭvis, snow, the nom. retains a palatal lost in the other cases (original stem snig-, compare ningit); supellex (-ectilis) is partly a lingual, partly an i-stem.
sing. Peak, m. plur.

| Nom. | apex | apǐces |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | apǐcis | apĭcum |
| Dat. | apǐci | apǐcibus |
| Acc. | apǐcem | apǐces |
| Voc. apex | apĭces |  |
| Abl. apǐce | apĭcibus |  |

sing. Raven, f. plur. cornix cornīces cornícis cornicum cornīci cornīcibus cornīcem cornīces cornix cornīces cornīce cornīcibus

| Sing. | Peace, F. | King, M. | Light, | F. | Fruit, F. | Citadel, F. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | Throat.

c. Case-forms. A few monosyllables, as faux (def.), arx, have gen. plur. ium; in lux, an abl. luci occurs rarely.
4. Peculiar Forms. In many nouns the stem is variously modified in the nominative.
a. The vowel-stems gru-, su-, simply add s, retaining the original $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$; grūs has also a nom. grŭis; sus has in pl. subus.
b. In bov- (bou-), the diphthong ou becomes $\overline{0}$ (bōs, bǒvis); in nav- (nau-) an i is added (nāvis, is); in Jǒv-(=Zévs) the diphthong becomes $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ in $\mathbf{J u}$-pĭter (păter), gen. Jơvis, \&c.
c. In Ǐtěr, ǐtĭněris (N.), jĕcur, jecinŏris (N.), the nom. has been formed from a shorter stem; so that these words show a combination of two distinct forms.
d. Of the many original s-stems, only vas, vasis ( pl . vasa, ōrum) retains its proper declension.

Note. - Of apparent s-stems, as (assis) is an i-stem ; of os, ossis, the original stem is osti- (cf. b̋oteov and Sanskrit asthi); while the others have either (1) passed into $\mathbf{r}$-stems (changed from s) in most of the cases, as honor, ōris, corpus, orris (see liquid stems) ; or (2) have broken down into $\mathbf{i - s t e m s , ~ a s ~ m o l e s ~ ( c f . ~ m o l e s t u s ) , ~ n u b e s ~ ( S a n s k r i t ~}$ nabhas), sedes (cf. 'é $\delta \mathrm{os}$ ), vis (vīres), \&c.

| Sing. |  | Snow, F | Old Man, m. sênex | Flesh, F. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Bone, } \mathrm{N} . \\ & \text { Øs } \end{aligned}$ | Force, F . <br> vīs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }_{\text {G }}$. | bovis | nix | sennex |  |  |  |
| ${ }_{\text {D. }}^{\text {d. }}$ | bovi | nivi | sêni | carni | ossi |  |
| A. | brvem | nivem | sěnem | carne | os | vim |
| A. | bðve | nivè | sěně | carne | oss |  |
| N. A. VG.D. A. | . brves | niv | sěnes | carnes | osss | vir |
|  | boum |  | sěnum |  | ossium | vïrium |
|  | bōbus | nivibu | sênǐbus | carnibus | ossǐbus | vīribus |

5. The Locative form for nouns of the Third declension ends, like the dative, in $\overline{\mathbf{i}}$; sometimes, like the ablative, in ě: as, ruri, in the country; Karthagini, at Carthage; Tibŭre (Hor.), at Tibur ; - plural in Ǐbus: as, Trallibus, at Tralles.
6. Greek Nouns. Many nouns, originally Greek, mostly proper names, - retain Greek forms of inflection.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Stems in in- (i long) add $\mathbf{s}$ in the nominative, omitting n : as, delphis (but also delphin), Salamis. So Phorcys.
b. Most stems in id- (nom. is) often have also the forms of i-stems : as, tigris, ĭdis (idos) or is; acc. Ĭdem (Ĭda) or im; abl. Îde or i. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. idem (ida), abl. $\mathbf{1 d e}$, - not im and $\mathbf{i}$. These follow the forms in Greek, which depend on the place of the accent.
c. Stems in ŏn- sometimes retain n: as, Agamemnon (or Agamemno), ठ̆nis, acc. б̆na.
d. Stems in ont- form the nom. in $\overline{\mathrm{n}}$ : as, horizon, Xenǒphon; but a few are occasionally latinized into ōn- (nom. o): as, Draco, ōnis.
e. Stems in ant-, ent-, have nom. in ās, īs : as, adămās, antis; Simol̆s, entis. So a few in unt- (contr. from oent-) have ūs: as, Trapēzus, untis. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found: as, Atlans, elephans.
f. Case-Forms. - Many Greek nouns (especially in the poets) have gen. ős, acc. ă; plur. nom. ĕs, acc. ăs: as, aēr, aethēr, cratēr, hēro (ōis), lampas (ădis or ădos), lynx (cis or cǒs), nāĭs (idos), Orpheus (eos).
g. A few in ys have acc. yn, voc. y; abl. yë: as, chelys, yn, y ; Capys, yos, yn, y, yē.
7. Several feminine names in $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ have gen. sing. ūs, all the other cases ending in $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$; they may also have regular forms: as, Dido; gen. Didōnis or Didūs; dat. Didōni or Dido, \&c.

## IV. Rules of Gender.

1. The following are general Rules of Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to the termination of the nominative.

Note. - Rules of gender are mostly only rules of memory, as there is no necessary connection between the form and gender. In fact, most nouns could originally be inflected in all genders.
a. Masculine endings are o, or, os, er, es (Ĭdis, Ǐtis).
b. Feminine endings are as (ātis), es (is), is, ys, $x$, s (following a consonant); also, do, go, io (abstract and collective), and $\bar{u} s$ (ūdis, ūtis).
c. Neuter endings are $\mathbf{a}, \mathrm{e}, \mathbf{i}, \mathrm{y}$; $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{l}, \mathrm{t}$; men (mĭnis); ar, ur, us (ĕris, ŏris).
2. The following are general Rules of Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems.

Note. - See the Note above. But the preference of masc. and fem. (especially fem.) for long vowels cannot be accidental (compare long a of 1st declension). Some affixes also prefer one or another gender: as, tor (originally tar), masculine; ti, feminine; men (originally man), neuter.
a. Vowel Stems. Stems in $\mathbf{i}$, having $\mathbf{s}$ in the nominative are feminine, except those mentioned below ( $3, a$ ). Those havin nominative in $\breve{e}$, or which drop the $\mathbf{e}$, are neuter.
b. Liquid Stems. Stems in 1 are masculine, except sil fel, mel, and sometimes sal ( N ). Those in min are neuter, ex cept homo, nemo, flamen (m.). Others in in are masculine except pollen, unguen (N.). Those in ēn are masculine. Thois in dĭn, gĭn, iōn (abstract and collective) are feminine. Other in $\overline{\mathrm{D}} \mathrm{n}$, with cardo, margo, ordo, unio, senio, quaternio, ar masculine. Those in r preceded by a short vowel are neuter except nearly 30 given below. Those in $\mathbf{r}$ preceded by a lons vowel are masculine, except soror, uxor, glos, tellus, F.; crus jus, pus, rus, tus (in which the long vowel is due to contraction), N
c. Labial Stems (no neuters). Stems in b and m ar feminine, except chalybs. Those in $\mathbf{p}$ are chiefly masculin (exceptions below).
d. Lingual Stems. Stems in ăd, ěd, ĭd, nd, ūd, aud, ar feminine, except dromas, pes, quadrupes, obses, præses lapis (m.). Those in āt, ūt, are feminine, except patrials (a Arpinas), with penātes and optimātes. Those in ēd, ēt, ar masculine, except merces and quies with its compounds. Thos in ět, І̆t, are masculine, except abies, merges, seges, teges (F.) and those which are common from signification. Those in ăt are neuter ; those in nt various (see List); those in lt, rt, feminine (For a few isolated forms, see List.)
e. Palatal Stems. Stems in c preceded by a consonant or long vowel are feminine, except calx (stone or heel), decunx phoenix, storax, vervex, m. Those in c preceded by a short vowel are chiefly masculine (for exceptions, see List); those in g masculine, except frux, lex, phalanx, syrinx (also nix, nĭvis)
3. The following are the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the Third Declension, classed according to their Stems.

## a. Vowel-Stems.

ès, is: - about 35 nouns (original s-stems, list p. 17), feminine, except tudes, hammer; vates, prophet; verres, pig (м.).
İs, iss:- about 100 nouns, chiefly feminine.
Exc. - ædilis, edile ; amnis, river; anguis, snake; antes (pl.), ranks; assis, a coin; axis, axle; callis (c.), by-path; canalis (c.), canal; canis (c.), dog; caulis, stälk; civis (c.), citizen ; clunis (c.), haunch; collis, hill; crinis (c.), hair; ensis, sword; fascis, fagot; finis (c.), end ; follis, bellows; funis (c.), rope; fustis, club; hostis (c.), enemy; ignis, fire; juvenis (c.), youth; lactes (pl.), entrails; lares, gods; manes, departed spirits ; mensis, month; orbis, circle; panis, bread; piscis, fish; sentis (c.), brier; testis (c.), witness; torris, brand; unguis, claw; vectis, bar ; vepres (c., pl.), brambles; vermis, worm (м.).

## 11: IV., 3.] THIRD DECLENSION: FORMS OF INFLECTION. 25

é, is :- upwards of 20 nouns, all neuter.
ăl, ālis; ăr, āris:-16, neuter (see list, page 17 ; and for those in ăr, ăris, see Liquid Stems).
ĕr, ris:-imber, shower ; linter, boat ; uter, bag ; venter, stomach, - all m. except linter, which is commonly $\mathbf{F}$.
Peculiar:-grus, gruis, crane, f.; rhus, rhois (acc. rhum), sumach, m. ; sus, suis, hog, C.; heros, herōis, hero, m. ; misy, yos, truffle, F.; oxys, yos, sorrel, F.; cinnibări, vermilion; gummi, gum ; sināpi, mustard (indecl.), N.

## b. Liquid Stems.

1, lis:-9 nouns, masculine, except sil, ochre, and (sometimes) sal, salt, n.
en, ĕnis: -hymen, marriage ; ren, kidney ; splen (ēnis), spleen, m.
ĕn, ĭnis :-10 nouns, m. except pollen, flour; unguen, ointment, N .
mĕn, mĭnĭs (verbal): - about 30 nouns, neuter; but flamen, priest, M.
ōn, ŏnis (Greek):- canon, rule; dæmon, divinity; gnomon, index, м. ;-aēdon, nightingale; alcyon, kingfisher; ancon, corner ; sindon, fine linen, $\mathbf{F}$.
o, ōnis:- nearly 60 nouns, all masculine.
io, iōnis (material objects, \&c.) : - about 30 nouns, masculine.
io, iōnis (abstract and collective) : - upwards of 50, feminine.
o, inis:-homo, man ; turbo, whirlwind, m. ; nemo, no one, c.
do, dĭnis:- nearly 50 nouns, feminine excepting cardo, linge; ordo, rank, m.
go, gĭnis:- about 30 nouns, feminine.
ar, ăris:- baccar, valerian ; jubar, sunbeam; nectar, nectar, N.; lar, household god ; salar, trout, m.
ĕr, ris:-accipiter, hawk; frater, brother; pater, father, M.; mater, mother.
$\overline{\mathrm{e}}$, ēris (Greek): - crater, cup; halter, dumb-bell ; prester, waterspout, м.
ěr, ĕris:-acipenser, hawk; aër, air ; æther, ether; anser, goose; asser, stake; aster, star ; cancer, crab; carcer, dungeon; later, brick; passer, sparrow, M.;-mulier, woman, F.;acer, maple ; cadāver, corpse ; cicer, vetch; papāver, poppy; piper, pepper ; tūber, hump; uber, udder ; verber, lash, N.
Ĭs, ĕris:-cinis, ashes ; cucŭmis, cucumber ; pulvis, dust ; vomis, ploughshare, м.
or ( $\overline{\mathbf{o} s}$ ), öris: - nearly 70 nouns (besides many denoting the agent, formed upon verb-stems), all masculine, except soror, sister; uxor, wife.

Ø̆r, öris:-castor, beaver ; rhetor, rhetorician, м.;-arbor, tree, F.; -ador, fine-wheal ; æquor, level; marmor, marble, N.
ōs, ōris :-flos, flower ; mos, custom ; ros, dew, м. ; - glos, sister-in-law, r.;-os, mouth, N.
ŭr, ơris:-ebur, ivory ; femur, thigh ; jecur, liver ; robur (or), strength, N .
ür, ŭris :-9 masculine ; with fulgur, thunderbolt ; murmur, murmur ; sulphur, brimstone, N.
us, ĕris:-13 neuter; also, Venus, $\mathbf{F}$.
us, ŏris:-14 nouns, neuter, except lepus, hare, m.
us, ūris: - mus, mouse, m. ; - tellus, earth, F.; - crus, leg ; jus, right ; pus, fester; rus, country ; tus, incense, N.
Peculiar:-delphin, ĭnis, dolphin; sanguis (en) ĭnis, blood; senex, senis, old man, N. ; caro, carnis, flesh, F,; æs, æris, copper ; far, farris, corn ; fel, fellis, gall ; mel, mellis, honey; iter, itineris, journey ; jecur, jecinŏris (jecorris), liver, N. ; glis,-iris, dormouse, м.

## c. Labial.

bs, bis:-chalybs, steel, m.;-plebs, people; scrobs, ditch; trabs, beam ; urbs, city, F. (original i-stems).
ms, mis:- hiemps, winter, F.
ps, pis: -15 nouns, masculine, except forceps, pincers ; merops, bee-eater; ops, help; stips, gift; stirps, stock, F.

## d. Lingual.

ăs, ădis (Greek):-14 nouns, feminine, except dromas, dromedary; vas, surety, m.
ès, èdis:-cupes, epicure ; heres, heir; præs, surety, m.; merces, pay, $\mathbf{F}$.
ès, ědis; - pes, foot; quadrupes, quadruped, m. ; - compes, fetter, $\mathbf{F}$.
ēs, İdis: - obses, hostage; præses, chief, c.
is, Ǐdis: - nearly 40 nouns, mostly Greek, feminine, except lapis, stone, M.
ōs, ōdis :- custos, guardian, м.
ōs, ōtis:- nepos, grändson, м. ; cos, whetstone ; dos, dowry, f.
ūs, ūdis:-incus, anvil ; palus, marsh; subscus, dovetail; with fraus, fraud; laus, praise; pecŭs, ŭdis, sheep, 世.
ă, ătis (Greek) : - nearly 20 nouns, neuter.
ās, ātis:-about 20 nouns (besides derivatives), feminine; also, anas, ătis, duck.
ès, ētis:-celes, race-horse; lebes, kettle; magnes, magnet, м. ; - quies, requies, rest; inquies, unrest, F.
es, ětis:-aries, ram; interpres, interpreter ; paries, house-wall, m. ; - abies, fir; seges, crop; teges, mat, F.
ěs, Ĭtis:- about 20 nouns, masculine (or common from signification).
ūs, ūtis:- juventus, youth; senectus, old age; servitus, slavery; virtus, virtue, F.
ns, ndis:-frons, leaf; glans, acorn; juglans, walnut, F.
ns, ntis: - nearly 20 (besides many participial nouns), common, except dens, tooth; fons, fountain; mons, mountain; pons, bridge, m. ; frons, brow; gens, nation; lens, lentile; mens, mind, .
rs, rtis (originally i-stems):-ars, art; cohors, cohort; fors, chance; mors, death ; sors, lot, F.
ys, ydis:- chelys, tortoise ; chlamys, cloak, F.
Peculiar: - as, assis, penny, m.;-lis, litis, lawsuit; nox, noctis, night ; puls, pultis, pottage, F.; - caput, itis, head; cor, cordis, heart ; hepar, ătis, liver ; os, ossis, bone ; vas, vasis, vessel, N.; also, compounds of -pūs, -pŏdis (M.), Gr. for pes, foot.

## e. Palatal.

ax, ăcis:-anthrax, coal ; corax, raven ; frax (pl.), dregs ; panax, panacea; scolopax, woodcock, m.;-fax, torch; styrax, a gum, $\mathbf{F}$.
ax, ācis:-cnodax, pivot; cordax, a dance ; thorax, breastplate, M. ; pax, peace, F.
ex, Ǐcis: - upwards of 40 nouns, masculine, except carex, sedge; forfex, shears ; ilex, holm; imbrex, tile; nex (nĕcis), violent death; pellex, concubine, $\mathbf{F}$.
ix, icis:- about 30 nouns (also, larix, Ǐcis, larch), feminine; besides many in trix, regular feminines of nouns in tor.
ox, ōcis: - celox, cutter, F.
ux, ŭcis:-dux, leader, c.; - crux, cross; nux, nut, F.
ux, $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ cis : - balux, gold-dust ; lux, light, F.
$\mathbf{x}$, cis: - arx, tower ; calx, lime; falx, pruning-knife; lynx, lynx ; merx (def.), ware, F. ; - calyx, cup; calx, heel, м.
x , gis:- conjux ( nx ), spouse; grex, herd; remex, rower; rex, king, м. or C. ;-frux (def.), fruit; lex, law; phalanx, pha$\operatorname{lan} x, F$, with a few rare names of animals.
Other nouns in $\mathbf{x}$ are nix, nivis, snow; nox, noctis, night; supellex, ectilis, F.; - onyx, ychis, onyx, m.

## 12. Fourth Declension.

The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in $\mathbf{u}$. (Usually this is weakened to $i$ before -bus).

1. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding s ; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with $\bar{u}$ (long).

Note. - The $\mathbf{u}$ in neuters is lengthened, probably on account of the loss of $\mathbf{m}$.
sing. Car (m.) plur.
Nom. currŭs currūз Gen. - currūs (uis) . curruum Dat. currui ( $\overline{\mathrm{u}})$ currǐbus Acc. currum currūs Voc. currŭs currūs Abl. currū currībus '
sing. Knee (n.) plur. gĕnū genua gen $\bar{u}(\bar{u} s) \quad$ genuum genū genĭbus gen $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$. genua gen $\bar{u}$. genua gen $\bar{u}$. genĭbus

Note. - The Genitive singular is contracted from the old form in uis. It is sometimes written with a circumflex : as, currûs.
2. Gender. - a. Most nouns in us are masculine. The following are feminine: - ăcus, needle; ănus, old woman; cơlus, distaff; dormus, house; idus (pl.), the Ides; mănus, hand; nurus, daughter-in-law ; portĭcus, gallery ; quinquātrus, feast of Minerva; socrus, mother-in-law; tribus, tribe; with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, arcus, penus, specus.
b. The only neuters are cornu, horn ; genu, knee; pecu (def.), cattle ; veru, spit. (Some others are mentioned by grammarians, and the form ossua, as from ossu, occurs in inscriptions.)
3. Case-Forms. - a. An original genitive in os is sometimes found: as, senatuos; and an old (but not original) geni365 tive in $\mathbf{i}$ is used by some writers.
b. The nominative plural has rarely the form uus.
c. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted into ūm.
d. The following retain the regular dative and ablative plural in ŭbus: artus, partus, portus, tribus, veru; with dissyllables in -cus, as lacus.
e. Dormus, house, has also the following forms of the second declension: domi (locative, less frequently domuï), at home; dative (rarely) dom $\bar{o}$; ablative domō (rarely dom $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ ); plural gen. domorum (rarely domuum); accusative domōs (or domūs).
f. Most names of plants, with colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension.
4. Most nouns of the fourth declension are formed from verbstems, with the suffix -tus: as, cantus, song, from căno.
a. The Supines of verbs are the accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of these nouns.
b. Many have only the genitive, or the genitive and ablative : as, jussu (meo), by my command ; so injussu (populi), without the people's order. Some only the dative, memoratui, divisui.
c. The remaining nouns of this declension are the following : -
æstus, heat ; arcus, bow ; artus, joint; cœtus, meeting; fetus, produce ; ficus, fig; gradus, step; incestus, incest ; lacus, lake ; laurus, laurel; myrtus, myrtle; penus (def.), provision; pinus, pine; portus, port; rictus, gape; senatus, senate; sinus, fold, bay; situs, dust; specus, den; tonitrus, thunder; tumultus, tumult. vultus

Note. - Several of these are formed upon verb-stems not in use, or obsolete.

## 13. Fifth Declension.

The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in $\bar{e}$, which appears in all the cases.

1. The nominative is formed from the stem by adding s.

|  | plur. |  | sivg. $D$ | plur. | Faith (f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | rēs | rēs | diēs | diēs | fides |
| Gen. | rěi | rērum | diēie (diē | diērum | fiděi |
| Dat. | rěi | rēbus | diēi ( $\mathrm{dieie}^{\text {e }}$ | diēbus | fiděi |
| Acc. | rem | rēs | diēm | diêes | fidem |
| Voc. | rēs | rēs | diēs | diêes | fidēs |
| Abl. | rē | rēbus | die | diēbus | fide |

Note. - The e is shortened in the genitive and dative singular, when not preceded by i; viz., in fides, plebes, spes, res.
2. Gender. All nouns of this declension are feminine, except dies and meridies, m.

Note.- Dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially in phrases indicating a fixed time, or time in general : as, longa dies, a long time; constitutâ die, on the set day; also in the poets: pulcra dies, a fair day.
3. Case-Forms. The genitive singular anciently ended in ès (cf. às of first declension); and ei was sometimes contracted into i or e, as in the phrase plebi-scitum, people's decree (Fr. plébiscite). An old dative in $\mathbf{i}$ or e also occurs.
4. Several nouns of the fifth declension have also forms of the first, of which this is only a variety: as, materia, -ies, timber; saevitia, -ies, cruelty.

Note. - Nouns in ies (except dies) are original a-stems. The others are probably (excepting res) corrupted s-stems, like moles, moles-tus; dies, diurnus ; spes, spero. Requies (ētis) has also forms of this declension: with others, as saties (for satietas), \&c.
5. The Locative form of this declension is represented by -e, as in hodie, to-day; perendie, day-after-to-morrow; die quarti, the fourth day.
6. Of about forty nouns of this declension, the only ones complete in all their parts are dies and res. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative, accusative, and vocative, in the following: acies, effigies, eluvies, facies, glacies, progenies, series, species, spes.

## 14. Irregular Nouns.

1. Defective. Many nouns are defective in their forms of declension, either from signification or by accident of use.
a. Some are found only in the singular (singularia tantum), chiefly abstract nouns : as, pietas, piety; names of materials and things weighed or measured (not counted) : as, aes, copper, far, coin; and proper names, as Cicero.

Abstract nouns in the plural may denote repetitions or instances, as paces:-names of things measured, \&c., kinds or samples, as vina, wines, aera, brazen utensils; proper names, two or more of the same, as Scipiones. So Galliae, the two Gauls, Castðres, Castor and Pollux, nives, snowflakes, soles, days, Joves, images of Jupiter, palatia, the buildings on the hill.
b. Some are found only in the Plural (pluralia tantum): these include (1) many proper names, including those of Festivals and Games; (2) names of classes : as, majores, ancestors ; liberi, children; penates, household gods; (3) the following from signification: arma, weapons ; artus, joints; divitiae, riches; excubiae, night-guard; insidiae, ambush; manes, departed spirits; minae, threats ; moenia, fortifications, and a few others, which are very rare.
c. The following are defective in Case :-
ambage, § F. ; astus (8. and p.), astu, м. ; cassem, e, § м. ; dapis, $i$, em, $e$, § F.; dicam, as, F.; dicionis, i, em, e, § F.; fauce, § F.; foras, is (pl.), F.; fors, forte, F.; fruyis, i, em, e, § F. ; glos, F. ; gratice, as, is, F.; iuppetus, um, u, м. ; infitias, F. ; jugera, un, ibus, N. ; lues, em, e, F. ; mane (nom., ace., and abl.), N. ; nauci, N. ; obice, § C. ; opis, em, e, § F., pondo (abl. or in lec.), N . ; precem, e, § F. ; sentis, em, es, ibus, M. ; sordem, e, § ₹. ; spontis, $e$, F.; suppetias, F.; venui, um, м. (o, N.) ; vicis, em, e, es, ibus, F. The gen. plur. is also wanting in cor, cos, fax, fox, lux, nex, os (oris), pax, proes, ros, sal, sol, tus, vas,.ver; jura, rura, have only nom. and ace. plur.
§ Plural complete.
Many nouns of the fourth declension occur only in the dative, or in the acc. and abl. (supines).

The following neuters are indeclinable: fas, nefas, instar, necesse, nihil, opus, secus.

Nouns found only in one case are called monoptotes; in two cases, diptotes; in three cases, triptotes.
2. Variable. Many nouns vary in their form of declension, their gender, or their signification under different forms.
a. Some have two or more forms of Declension, and are called heteroclites: as,

Balnea or $\boldsymbol{e}$; carbasus (F.), pl., a (N.) ; colus (1st and 4th), F.; femur, ŏris or ünis; jugerum, i, or abl.e, pl. a, um, N.; margarīta, ae (F.), or um, $i$ (N.) ; Mulciber, bri or beris: munus, ĕris, pl. munia (mœenia), orum; pubes, eris ; em, e; penus, $i$, or ŏris ; scevitia, $\boldsymbol{x}$; -ies, iei ; -itudo, inis, F.; sequester, tri, or tris; with many found in the 1st and 5th declensions, and a few other rare forms.
b. Some nouns vary in Gender (heterogeneous) : as,
calum ( n .), pl. cæli (м.). sky; clipeus (m.), or clipeum ( N. ), shield; frenum (м.), pl. freni (м.), rein.
c. Many nouns vary in meaning as thev are found in the singular or plural : as,
ædes, is ( F .), temple ; ædes, ium, house.
auxilium (N.), help; auxilia, auxiliaries.
carcer (м.), dungeon; carcĕres, barriers (of a race-course).
castrum ( M.), fort ; castra, camp.
copia (F.), plenty; copiæ, troops.
finis (м.), end; fines, bounds, territories.
forum, market-place; fori, gang-ways.
gratia (f.), facor ; gratiæ, thanks.
impedimentum (n.), hinderance; impedimenta, baggage.
littěra (f.), letter (of alphabet); litteræ, epistle.
lücus (m.), place [pl. loca (N.)] ; loci, passages in books. (In early writers this is the regular plural.)
ludus, sport; ludi, public qames.
opera, task; operx, day-laborers ("hands").
opis (F. gen.), help; opes, resources, wealth. plăga (f.), region [plāga, blow]; plăgæ, snares. rostrum, beak of a ship; rostra, speaker's platform. sāl (m. or N.), salt ; sales, witticisms.
tabella, tablet; tabellæ, documents.
sestertius' (м.) means the sum of $2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses, $=$ about 4 cents. sestertium ( N. ) means the sum of 1000 sestertii, $=$ about $\$ 40$. decies sestertium means the sum of 1000 sestertia $,=\$ 40,000$.
d. Sometimes a noun in combination with an adjective takes a special signification, both parts being regularly inflected: as, jusjūrandum, jūrisjurandi, oath; respublica, reipublicae, commonwealth.

## 15. Proper Names.

1. A Roman had regularly three names. Thus, in the name Marcus Tullius Cicero, we have -

Marcus, the proenomen, or personal name;
Tullius, the nomen; i.e., name of the Gens, or house, whose original head was Tullus; this name is properly an adjective;

Cicero, the cognomen, or family name, often in its origin a nickname, - in this case from cřcer, a vetch, or small pea.
2. A fourth or fifth name, called the agnomen, was sometimes given.

Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus Amilianus; Africanus from his exploits in Africa; Atmilianus as adopted from the Emilian gens.
3. Women had no personal names, but were known only by that of their gens.

Thus the wife of Cicero was Terentia, and his daughter Tullia. A younger sister would have been called Tullia secunda or minor, and so on.
4. The commonest prænomens are thus abbreviated:-
A. Aulus.
C. (G.) Gaius (Caius). Cn. (Gn.) Gnæus (Cneius). D. Decimus. K. Kæso.

App. Appius.
L. Lucius.
M. Marcus.

M'. Manius.
Mam. Mamercus.
N. Numerius.
P. Publius.
Q. Quintus.

Ser. Servius. Sex. Sextus.
Sp. Spurius.
T. Titus.

Ti. Tiberius.

## ADJECTIVES.

16. Inflection of Adjectives.

Adjectives and Participles are in general formed and declined like Nouns, differing from nouns only in their use. In accordance with their use, they distinguish gender by different forms in the same word. They are (1) of the first and second declensions, or (2) of the third declension.

Note. - Latin adjectives and participles are either o-stems with the corresponding feminine $\mathbf{a}$-stems (originally $\breve{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ), or $\mathbf{i}$-stems. Many, however, were originally stems in u or a consonant, which passed over, in all or most of their cases, into the $\mathbf{i}$-declension, for which Latin had a special fondness. (Compare the endings ess and is of the Third declension with Greek es and ăs; navis (nom.) with the Greek vav̂s; animus with exanimis ; cornu with bicornis; lingua with bilinguis ; cor, corde, corda, with discors, -di, -dia, -dium; suävis
 languages are nouns, retain the consonant-form: as, vetus = '̈ros, $u b e r=o$ oitap. Comparatives also retain the consonant form in most of their cases.

1. Stems in o have the feminine $\breve{a}$ (originally $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ). They are declined like servus (м.), stella (F.), donum (N.): as,

| Sing. | Nom. | cārŭs | cāră | cārum, Dear. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Gen. | carī | carae | carī |
|  | Dat. | carō | carae | carō |
|  | Acc. | carum | caram | carum |
|  | Voc. | carĕ | cară | carum |
|  | Abl. | carō | carā | carō |
| Plur. | Nom. | carī | carae | cară |
|  | Gen. | carōrum | carārum | carōrum |
|  | Dat. | caris | caris | caris |
|  | Acc. | carōs | carās | cară |
|  | Voc. | carī | carae | cară |
|  | Abl. | carīs | caris | caris |

Note. - The masc. gen. of adjectives in ius ends in ii, and the vocative in ie; not in $\mathbf{i}$ as in nouns.
a. In adjectives of stems ending in ro- preceded by ě or a consonant (also satur), the masculine nominative is formed like puer or liber (§ 10): as,

Sing.

| N. mĭser | missĕra | mĭsĕrum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| G. miseri | miseræ | miseri |
| D. misero | miseræ | misero |
| Ac. miserum | miseram | miserum |
| V. miser | misera | miserum |
| Ab misero | miseră | misero |
| Plur. |  |  |
| N. miseri | miseræ | misera |
| G. miserorum | miserarum | miserorum |
| D. miseris | miseris | miseris |
| Ac. miseros | miseras | misera |
| V. miseri | miseræ | misera |
| Ab. miseris | miseris | miseris |

Ater, black.

| ater | atra | atrum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| atri | atræ | atri |
| atro | atræ | atro |
| atrum | atram | atrum |
| ater | atra | atrum |
| atro | atra | atro |
| atri | atre | atra |
| atrorum | atrarum | atrorum |
| atris | atris | atris |
| atros | atras | atra |
| atri | atræ | atra |
| atris | atris | atris |

Stems in ēro, with morigĕrus, propĕrus, postĕrus, have the regular nominative in us.

Like miser are declined - asper, rough ; gibber, hunched ; lacer, torn; liber, free; prosper (erus), favoring; satur (ura, urum), sated; tener, tender; with compounds of -fer and-ger; also, usually, dexter, right. In these the e belongs to the stem; but in dexter it is often syncopated.

Like ater are declined - æger, sick ; creber, close ; faber, skilled; glaber, sleek; integer, whole; ludicer, sportive; macer, lean; niger, dark; noster, our ; piger, sluggish; ruber, red; sacer, sacred; sinister, left; teter, foul; vafer, shrewd; vester, your.

The following feminines lack a masculine singular nominative :cetĕra, infëra, postĕra, supĕra. They are rarely found in the singular except in certain phrases: as, postero die. A feminine ablative in o is found in a few Greek adjectives, as lectīcâ octophŏro (Verr. v. 11.).
b. The following (o-stems) with their compounds have the genitive singular in ius and the dative in $\bar{i}$ in all the genders :ălius ( N . aliud), other. nullus, none. ullus, any (with negatives). alter, other (of two). sōlus, alone. ūnus, one. neuter, -trīus, neither. tōtus, whole. ŭter,-trius, which (of two).

- Note. - The suffix ter, in alter, uter, neuter, is the same as the Greek comparative suffix -тєpo(s). The stem of aliud appears in early Latin and in derivatives as ali-, in the forms alis, alid (for aliud), aliter, \&c.

Of these the singular is thus declined : -

|  |  | F. | N. | M. | F. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. | solus | sola | solum | uter | utra | utrum |
| G. | solīus | solius | solīus | utrīus | utrius | utrius |
| D. | soli | soli | soli | utri | utri | utri |
| A. | solum | solam | solum | utrum | utram | utrum |
| A. | solo | solā | solo | utro | utrā | utro |
| N. | alius | alia | aliud | alter | altěra | alterum |
| G. | alius | alius | alius | alterius | alterius | alterius |
| D. | alii | alii | alii | alteri | alteri | alteri |
| A. | alium | aliam | aliud | alterum | alteram | alterum |
| A. | alio | aliā | alio | altero | alterā | altero |

Note. - These words, in Greek and Sanskrit, are treated as pronouns; which accords with the pronominal forms of the genitive in ius, the dative in $\mathbf{i}$, and the neuter $\mathbf{d}$ in aliud. The $\mathbf{i}$ in the genitive -ius, though long, may be made short in verse; and alterius is generally accented on the antepenult. Instead of alīus (gen.), alterius is more commonly used. In compounds - as alterūter - sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter.
2. Stèms in i-distinguished by being parisyllabichave properly no form for the feminine, and hence are called adjectives of two terminations. In the neuter, $\mathbf{i}$ is changed to e. They are declined like turris (acc. em) and mare.

| Sing. | m., F. | N. | M. $K$ | n. F. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N.V. | lĕvis | lěve | acer | acris | acre |
| G. | lĕvis | lěvis | acris | acris | acris |
| D. | lěvi | lĕvi | acri | acri | acri |
| Ac. | lěvem | lěve | acrem | acrem | acre |
| Ab. | lěvi | lěvi | acri | acri | acri |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |  |
| N.V. | lěvēs | lĕvia | acres | acres | acria |
| G. | lĕvium | lĕvium | acrium | acrium | acrium |
| D. | lěvibus | lĕvibus | acribus | acribus | acribus |
| Ac. | lěvēs (is) | lĕvia | acres (is) | acres (is) | acria |
| Ab. | lěvibus | lĕvibus | acribus | acribus | acribus |

$\boldsymbol{a}$. Several stems in ri-form the masc. nom. in er (as acer, compare § 11, I. 2, b.). These are the following:-
acer, keen.
alacer, eager.
campester, of the plain. celeber, famous. equester, of horsemen. paluster, marshy.
pedester, on foot.
puter, rotlen.
salūber, wholesome. silvester, wooded. terrester, of the land. volŭcer, winged.

Also celer, celĕris, celĕre, swift; and, in certain phrases, the names of months in -ber.

Note. - This formation is not original ; and hence, in the poets, and in early Latin, either the masculine or feminine form of these adjectives was used for both genders. In others, as illustris, lugubris, mediöcris, muliebris, there is no separate masculine form.
b. Case-Forms. These adjectives, as true i-stems, retain $i$ in the abl. singular, the neut. plural ia, the gen. plur. ium, and often in the acc. plur. is, but never im in the acc. sing. For metrical reasons, an abl. in e sometimes occurs in poctry. When celer is used as an adjective, it has the regular gen. plur. in ium; as a noun, denoting a military rank, it is celerrum ; as a proper name, it has the abl. in e.
3. The remaining adjectives of the third declension have the form of i -stems in the ablative singular $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, the plural neuter ia, and genitive ium. In other cases they follow the rule of consonant-stems.
a. In adjectives of consonant-stems (except comparatives) the nominative singular is alike for all genders: hence they are called adjectives of one termination. Except of stems in 1 and $\mathbf{r}$, it is formed from the stem by adding s : as,

| Sing. | м. ғ. Hap | N. | M. F. | Calling | g. N . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N.V. | fēlix | fēlix | vocans |  | vocans |
| Gen. | felicis | felícis | vocantis |  | vocantis |
| Dat. | felīci | felīci | vocanti |  | vocanti |
| Acc. | felicem | felix | vocantem |  | vocans |
| Abl. | felice or | felici | vocante | or | vocanti |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |  |
| N.V. | felīces | felīcia | vocantes |  | vocantia |
| Gen. | felicium | felicium | vocantium |  | vocantium |
| Dat. | felicibus | felīcibus | vocantibu |  | vocantibus |
| Acc. | felices (is) | felīcia | vocantes |  | vocantia |
| Abl. | felīcibus | felīcibus | vocantibu |  | vocantibus |

Other examples are the following : -

| Sing. | M. F. $\quad \mathrm{N}$. | m. $\mathbf{F}$. N . | m. $\mathbf{F}$. ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N.v. | iens, going | par, equal | præceps, headlong |
| Gen. | euntis | paris | precipitis |
| Dat. | eunti |  | precipiti |
| Acc. | euntem iens | parem par | præcipitem præceps |
|  | eunte (i) | pari | præcipite |
| Plur. |  |  |  |
| N.A.V. | euntes euntia | pares paria | præcipites præcipitia |
| Gen. | euntium | parium | præcipitium |
| D. Ab. | euntibus | paribus | precipitibus |
| Sing. | M. F. N. | м. $\mathbf{F}$. | M. F. N. |
| N.v. | dives, rich | uber, fertile | vetus, old |
| Gen. | divitis | ubêris | veterris |
| Dat. | divîti | uběri | vetêri |
| Acc, | divitem dives | uberem uber | veterem vetus |
| Abl. | divǐte (i) | ubere (i) | vetere (i) |
| Plur. |  |  |  |
| N.A.v. | divǐtes (ditia) | uběres ubĕra | vetěres vetĕra |
| Gen | divǐtum | ubĕrum | veterum |
| D Ab. | divitibus | uberibus | veteribus |

Note. - The regular feminine of these adjectives, by analogy of cognate languages, would end in ia : this form is found in the abstracts amentia, desidia, socordia, \&c., and in proper names, as Florentia (cf. Greek ф'́povoa). The neuter would regularly have the simple stem (as caput, cor, allec, Greek ф'िpov); but in all except liquid stems, the masc. form in $\mathbf{s}$ has forced itself not only upon the neuter nominative, but upon the accusative also, where it is wholly abnormal.

A few of these forms, used as nouns, have a feminine in a : as, clienta, hospita, inhospita, with the appellation Juno Sospita.
b. The stem of Comparatives properly ended in ǒs, which became or in all cases except the neuter singular (N.A. v.), where $\mathbf{s}$ is retained, and $\zeta$ is changed to $\breve{\mathbf{u}}$ (compare hon $\bar{o} r$, $\overline{\text { oris }}$; corpus, oris). Thus they appear to have two terminations.

| Sing. | M. F. | - F. | M. F. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N.V. | carior | carius | - | plus |
| Gen. | cariōris | cariöris | - | plūris |
| Dat. | cariōri | cariōri | - | plūri |
| Ace. | cariorrem | carius | - | plus |
| Abl. | cariöre | cariori |  | plūre |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |
| N.V. | cariōres | cariōra | plüres | plūra (ia) |
| Gen. | cariorrum | cariörum | plurium | plurium |
| Dat. | carioribus | carioribus | pluribus | pluribus |
| Acc. | cariōres | cariōra | plures | plura |
| Abl. | carioribus | carioribus | pluribus | pluribus |

Note. - The neuter sing. plus is used only as a noun. Its derivative complures, several, has sometimes neut. plur. compluria. All other comparatives are declined like carior.
c. Case Forms. 1. The ablative singular of these adjectives commonly ends in $\mathbf{i}$; but, when used as nouns, - as superstes, survivor, - they have e. Participles in ns used as such, especially in the Ablative Absolute, - or as nouns, regularly have e; but as adjectives, regularly i. (So adjectives in ns as in the phrase, me imprudente.)

In the following, $\mathbf{e}$ is the regular form :-cóles, compos, deses, dives, hospes, pauper, particeps, proceps, princeps, superstes, supplex; also in patrials (see §44), with stems in at-, it-, nt-, rt-, when used as nouns, and sometimes as adjectives.
2. The genitive plural ends commonly in ium, and the accusative often in iss, even in comparatives, which are less inclined to the i-declension.

In the following, the gen. plur. ends in um:-always in dives, compos, inops, prcepes, supplex, and compounds of pes;-sometimes, in poetry, participles in ns. In vetus (ĕris), pubes (ĕris), uber (ĕris), which did not become $\mathbf{i}$-stems, the forms $\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{u m}$, are regular ; but $u b e r$ and vetus rarely have the abl. in i.
3. Several are declined in more than one form : as, gracǐlis (us), hilaris (us), inermis (us). A few are indecl. or defective: as, damnas (esto, sunto), frugi (dat. of advantage), exspes (only nom.), exlex(nom. and acc.), mactus (nom. and voc.), nequam (indecl.), pernox (pernoctu), potis, pote (indecl. or M. F. potis, N. pote), primōris, seminĕci, \&c.
d. Many adjectives, from their signification, are used only in the masculine or feminine, and may be called adjectives of common gender. Such are adolescens, youthful; deses, ǐdis, slothful; inops, ŏpis, poor; sospes, ĭtis, safe. So senex and juvenis may be called masculine adjectives.
e. Many nouns may be also used as adjectives (compare § 47, 3): as, pedes, a footman or on foot; especially nouns in tor (M.) and trix ( F. ), denoting the agent: as, victor exercitus, the conquering army; victrix causa, the winning cause.
$f$. Certain cases of adjectives are regularly used as Adverbs. These are, the acc. and abl. of the neuter singular: as, multum, multo, much ; the neuter of comparatives (regularly): as, carius, more dearly; lĕvius, more lightly; - together with those ending in $\bar{e}$ for o-stems, and ter for i-stems: as, carē, dearly ; leviter, lightly ; acerrime, most eagerly.

## 17. Comparison.

1. Regular Comparison. The Comparative is formed by adding, for the nominative, ior (old stem ios), neuter ius, and the Superlative by adding issǐmus, a, um (old ${ }^{\circ}$ issurmus), to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: as,
carus, dear ; carior, dearer ; carissimus, dearest.
lĕvis, light ; levior, lighter; levissimus, lightest.
fĕlix, happy; felicior, happier ; felicissimus, happiest.
hebes, dull; hebetior, duller ; hebetissimus, dullest.
Note. - The comparative suffix is the same as the Greek $i \omega \nu$, or the Sanskrit iyans. That of the superlative (issimus) is a double form, but what is the combination is not certain; perhaps it stands for ios-timus (comp. and sup.), or possibly for ist-timus (two superlatives). Strictly, new stems are thus formed.
a. Adjectives in er form the superlative by adding -rimus to the nominative (comparative regular) : as,
miser, miserior, miserrimus ; acer, acrior, acerrimus.
So vetus, veterrimus (for comparative, vetustior) from the old form veter; and, rarely, maturrimus (for maturissimus).
b. The following in lis add -limus to the stem clipped of its vowel: facilis, easy ; difficilis, hard; similis, like; dissimilis, unlike; gracilis, slender ; humilis, low.

Note. - The endings -limus and -rimus, the regular superlatives, are formed by assimilation from -timus and -simus.
c. Compounds in -dĭcus (saying), -ficus (doing), -vǒlus (willing), take the forms of corresponding participles in ns, which were anciently used as adjectives: as,
maledĭcus, slanderous, maledīcentior, maledīcentissimus. malevǒlus, spiteful, malevŏlentior, malevolentissimus.
d. Adjectives in us preceded by a vowel (except u) rarely have forms of comparison, but are compared by the adverbs magis, more ; maxime, most : as,
idoneus, fit ; magis idoneus, maxime idoneus.
Most derivatives in -ǐcus, -ĭdus, -ālis, -āris, -īlis, -ŭlus, -undus, -timus, -inus, -ivus, -ōrus, with compounds, as degener, inops, are also thus compared.
e. Participles when used as adjectives are regularly compared: as, patientior, patientissimus; apertior, apertissimus.

Note. - Many adjectives - as aureus, golden - are from their meaning incapable of comparison; but each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus niger, black, and candidus, white, are compared; but not ater or albus, meaning absolute black or white.
2. Irregular Comparison. Several adjectives are compared from different stems, or contain irregular forms : as,
bŏnus, mělior, optĭmus, good, better, best. mălus, pējor, pessimus, bad, worse, worst. magnus, mājor, maximus, great, greater, greatest. parvus, mĭnŏr, minimus, small, less, least. multum, plūs (土.), plurimum, much, more, most. multi, plüres, plurimi, many, more, most.nēquam (indecl.), nequior, nequissimus, worthless, frūgi (indecl.), frugālior, frugalissimus, useful, worthy. dexter, dextërior, dextĭmus, on the right, handy.
3. Defective Comparison. The following are formed from roots or stems not used as adjectives : -
[cis, citra] citěrior, citĭmus, hither, hithermost. [in, intra] intěrior, intĭmus, inner, inmost. [prae, pro] prior, prīmus, former, first. [prope] propior, proximms, nearer, next. [ultra] ulterior, ultǐmus, farther, farthest.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Of the following the positive forms (originally comparative) are rare, except when used as nouns, generally in the plural : -
[extĕrus] exterior, extrēmus (extimus), outer, outmost.
[infĕrus] inferior, infimus (ïmus), lower, lowest.
[postĕrus] posterior, postrēmus, latter, last.
[supērus] superior, supremus or summus, higher, highest.
The plurals, exteri, foreigners ; posteri, posterity ; superi, the heavenly gods ; inferi, those below, are common.
b. From juvenis, youth, sernex, old man, are formed the comparatives junior, younger, senior, older. Instead of the superlative, the phrase minimus or maximus natu is used (natu being often understood) : as,
maximus fratrum, the eldest of the brothers; but,
senior fratrum, the elder of the [two] brothers.
c. In the following, one of the forms of comparison is wanting: -

1. The Positive is wanting in deterior, deterrimus, worse, worst ; ocior, ocissimus, swifter, swiftest; potior, potissimus, more and most preferable [from potis, able].
2. The Comparative is wanting in bellus, pretty; caesius, gray ; falsus, false; inclŭtus (or inclĭtus), famous ; invictus, unsurpassed ; invitus, reluctant ; novus, new (novissimum agmen, rear guard) ; pius, pious ; sacer, sacred; vetus, old; and most derivatives in Ĭlis and bĭlis.
3. The Superlative is not found in actuōsus, energetic; alăcer, eager; arcānus, secret ; diuturnus, long-continued; exillis, slender; ingens, huge; jejūnus, sterile ; longinquus, distant; opīmus, rich ; proclīvis, inclined ; satur, sated ; segnis, sluggish; serus, late; supinus, supine; taciturnus, silent; tempestivus, seasonable; vicīnus, neighboring.
4. Adverbs. Adverbs formed from adjectives are compared in like manner : as,
carus, dear ; carē, carius, carissimē.
miser, wretched; miserē (iter), miserius, miserrimē.
lĕvis, light; levĭter, levius, levissimē.
audax, bold; audacter, audăcius, audacissimē.
bǒnus, good; běnĕ, mĕlius, optimē.
mălus, bad; malě, pējus, pessimē.
Also, diu, long (in time), diutius diutissime; - potius, rather, potissimum, first-of-all;-saepe, often, saepius ;-satis, enough, satius, preferable; - sěcus, otherwise, sēcius, worse; - multum (multo), măgis, maxime, much, more, most.
5. Signification. Besides their regular signification, the forms of comparison are used as follows:-
a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as, brevior, rather short; audacior, too bold. It is used instead of the superlative where only two are spoken of: as, melior imperatorum, the best of the (two) commanders.
b. The Superlative (of eminence) denotes a very high degree of a quality: as, maximus numerus, a very great number. With quam, it indicates the highest degree: as, quam plurimi, as many as possible; quam maxime potest (quam potest), as much as can be.
c. With quisque, the superlative has a peculiar signification : thus the phrase ditissimus quisque means, all the richest; primus quisque, all the first (each in his order).
d. A high degree of a quality is denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valde, very; or by per or prae in composition: as, permagnus, very great ; praealtus, very high (or deep).
e. A low degree is indicated by sub in composition: as, subrusticus, rather countrified; or by minus, not very; minime, not at all; parum, not enough; non satis, not much.

## 18. Numerals.

1. Cardinal and Ordinal. Cardinal Numbers answer to the interrogative quot, how many; Ordinal Numbers to quotus, which in order, or one of how many.

| cardinal | ordinal. roman numer |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1. unus, una, unum, one. | primus, a, um, first. |
| 2. duo, duæ, duo, two. | secundus (alter), second. |
| 3. tres, tria, three, \&oc. | tertius, third, \& ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. |
| 4. quattuor | quartus IV. |
| 5. quinque | quintus |
| 6. sex | sextus |
| 7. septem | septĭmus vir. |
| 8. octo | octāvus viII. |
| 9. novem | nonus IX. |
| 10. decem | decĭmus |
| 11. undĕcim | undecrımus |
| 12. duoděcim | duodecirmus XII. |
| 13. tredĕcim | tertius decĭmus XIII. |
| 14. quattuordĕcim | quartus decĭmus xiv. |
| 15. quindĕcim | quintus decĭmus |
| 16. seděcim | sextus decĭmus XVI, |
| 17. septĕndecim | septimus decřmus xVII. |
| 18. duodeviginti (octoděcim) | duodevicesĭmus xviII. |
| 19. undeviginti (novendĕcim) | undevicesimus XIX. |
| 20. viginti | vicesǐmus (vigesĭmus) . xx. |
| 21. viginti unus or unus et viginti | vicesimus primus, \&c. xxI. |
| 30. triginta | tricesimus xxx . |
| 40. quadraginta | quadragesimus XL . |
| 50. quinquaginta | quinquagesimus $\quad$ L. or L. |
| 60. sexaginta | sexagesimus LX. |
| 70. septuaginta | septuagesimus LXx. |
| 80. octoginta | octogesimus Lxxx. |
| 90. nonaginta | nonagesimus xc . |
| 100. centum | centesimus |

cardisal.
200. ducenti, $æ$, a
300. trecenti
400. quadringenti
500. quingenti
600. sexcenti
700. septingenti
800. octingenti
900. nongenti
1000. mille
5000. quinque millia (milia)
I0,000. decem millia (milia)
100,000. centum millia (milia)
ordinal.
ducentesimus
roman numerals.
trecentesimus CCC.
quadringentesimus CCCC. quingentesimus * ID, or D. sexcentesimus DC. septingentesimus DCC. octingentesimus DCCC. nongentesimus DCCCC. millesimus CID, or m. quinquies millesimus IวJ. decies millesimus ccioう. centies millesimus cСciววว.

Note. - The Ordinals (except secundus, tertius, octavus) are formed by means of the same suffixes as superlatives. Thus decimus (compare the form infimus) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; primus is a superlative of pro; the forms in tus (quartus, quintus, sextus) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in -Tos and $\pi \rho \hat{\omega} \tau 0 s$, superlative of $\pi \rho \delta$; nonus is contracted from novimus; while the others have the regular superlative ending -simus. I Of the exceptions, secundus is a participle of sequor; and alter is a comparative form (compare - $\tau \in \rho o s$ in Greek).
a. Unus, una, unum, one, is declined like solus (§ 16, i.), gen. unius and dat. uni in all genders. It often has the meaning of same, or only. It is used in the plural in this sense, as also to agree with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, una castra, one camp. So uni et alteri, one party and the other.
b. Duo, two (also ambo, both), is thus declined:-

| Nom. | duo | duae | duo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | duorum | duarum | duorum |
| Dat. | duobus | duabus | duobus |
| Acc. | duos (duo) | duas | duo |
| Abl. | duobus | duabus | duobus |

Note. - This form in -o is a remnant of the dual number, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages.
c. Tres, tria, three, is an i-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of levis. The other cardinal numbers, up to centum ( 100 ), are indeclinable. The multiples of ten are compounds of the multiple, with a fragment of decem: as, viginti = dui-ginta.

Note. - The forms octodecim (18), novendecim (19), are rare, undeviginti, duodeviginti, \&c., being commonly employed.
d. The hundreds, up to 1000 , and all the ordinals, are o-stems, and are regularly declined like adjectives of the first and second declension.

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$f$. To the personal (and sometimes to the adjective) pronouns enclitics are joined for emphasis:-met to all the pronouns; -te to tu; -pte to the abl. sing. of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others: as, vosmetipsos prodǐtis, you betray your own very selves; suopte pondere, by its own weight.

## 20. Demonstrative.

1. The Demonstrative Pronouns are hic, this; is, ille, iste, that ; with the Intensive ipse, self, and idem, same.

Note. - These are combinations of $o$ and $\mathbf{i}$-stems, which are not clearly distinguishable. Hic is a compound of the stem ho- with the demonstrative ce, which appears in full in early Latin (hice), and when followed by the enclitic -ne (hicine). In most of the cases it is shortened to c, and in many lost; but it is appended for emphasis to those that do not regularly retain it (hujusce). In early Latin c alone is retained in some of these (horunc). Ille and iste are sometimes found with the same enclitic (illic, istuc).
a. Ille is a later form of ollus (olle), which is sometimes used by the poets; a gen. sing. in $i$, ae, $i$, occurs in ille and iste.
b. Iste is sometimes found in early writers in the form ste, \&c., with the entire loss of the first syllable; and the $i$ of ipse and ille is very often found shortened.
c. Ipse is compounded of is and -pse (for pte, from the same root as potis), meaning self. The first part was originally declined, as in reāpse (for re eapse), in fact. An old form ipsus occurs. Idem is the demonstrative is with the affix -dem.
2. These demonstratives are used either with nouns as Adjectives, or alone as Pronouns; and, from their signification, cannot (except ipse) have a vocative.

This.

| Sing. | M. | . | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | hic | haec | hoc |
| Gen. | hujus | hujus | hujus |
| Dat. | huic | huic | huic |
| Acc. | hunc | hanc | hoc |
| Abl. | hoc | hac | hoc |
| Plur. |  | These. |  |
| Nom. | hi | hae | haec |
| Gen. | horum | harum | horum |
| Dat. | his | his | his |
| Ace. | hos | has | haec |
| Abl. | his | his | his |

That.


|  | That. |  |  | Self. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing. M. | F. $=$ | N. | M. | F. | N. |
| N. ille | illa | illud | ipse | ipsa | ipsum |
| G. illīus | illīus | illīus | ipsius | ipsius | ipsius |
| D. illi | illi | illi | ipsi | ipsi | ipsi |
| A. illum | illam | illud | ipsum | ipsam | ipsum |
| V. |  |  | ipse | ipsa | ipsum |
| A. illo | illā | illo | ipso | ipso | ipso |
| Plur. | Those. |  |  | Selves. |  |
| N. illi | illæ | illa | ipsi | jpsæ | ipsa |
| G illorum | illarum | illorum | ipsorum | ipsarum | ipsorum |
| 1. illis | illis | illis | ipsis | ipsis | ipsis |
| A. illos | illas | illa | ipsos | ipsas | ipsa |
| V. |  |  | ipsi | ipsæ | ipsa |
| A. illis | illis | illis | ipsis | ipsis | ipsis |

The Same.
Sing.
N. ĩdem eădem ǐdem
G. ejusdem ejusdem ejusdem
D. eidem eidem eidem
A. eundem eandem İdem
A. eodem eādem eodem

Plur.
iidem eædem eădem eorundem earundem eorundem eisdem or iisdem
eosdem easdem eădem eisdem or iisdem
a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, thought, or on the written page) ; hence called the demonstrative of the first person. It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for " the latter" of two things mentioned.
b. Ille is used of what is remote (in time, \&c.) ; hence called the demonstrative of the third person. It is sometimes used to mean "the former"; also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known; often((especially the neuter illud) to mean " the following."
c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness; often of the person addressed, - hence called the demonstrative of the second person; especially of one's opponent, frequently implying contempt.
d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others, not denoting any special object, but referring to one just mentioned, or to be explained by a relative. It is used oftener than the others as a personal pronoun ; and is often merely a correlative to the relative qui: as, eum quem, one whom; eum consulem qui non dubitet (Cic.), a consul who will not hesitate.
e. Ipse, may be used with a personal pronoun, as nos ipsi (nosmetipsi), we ourselves; or independently (the verb containing the pronoun), as, ipsi adestis; you are yourselves present; or with a noun, as ipsi fontes (Virg.), the very fountains.

Note. - In English, the pronouns himself, \&c., are used both intensively (as, he will come himself), or reflexively (as, he will kill Timself): in Latin the former would be translated ipse; the latter se, or sese.

## 21. Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

1. The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite pronouns are the same; viz., qui, quis (who, who? any), with their compounds and derivatives.

Note. - The stem has two forms, quo- and qui-. From the latter are formed quis, quid, quem, quibus, quī (abl.), while qui, que, are probably lengthened forms of $q u \bar{o}, q u \bar{a}$, made by the addition of the demonstrative particle i.

| Sing. | m. | F. | N. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | qui, quĭs | quae | quŏd, quĭd |
| Gen. | cūjus | cūjus | cūjus |
| Dat. | cui (quoi) | cui | cui |
| Acc. | quem | quam | quod |
| Abl. | quo (quī) | quā | quo |
| Plur. |  |  |  |
| Nom. | qui |  | quae |

Case Forms. a. The Relative has always qui and quod in the nom. sing. The Interrogative and Indefinite have quis, quid substantive, and qui, quod adjective. But quis and qui are sometimes used for each other.
b. Old forms for the gen. and dat. are quoius, quoi. A locative cui occurs only in the form cuicuimodi, of whatever sort.
c. The form quī is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any $w a y$, and in the combination quicum, as interrogative or indefinite relative.
d. A nom. plur. quēs (stem quĭ-) is found in early Latin. The dat. and abl. quis (stem quob-) is old, but not infrequent.
e. The preposition cum is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns.
2. The stems quo and qui are variously compounded.
a. The suffix -cunque (-cumque) added to the relative makes an Indefinite-relative, which is declined as the simple word: as,
quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whocver, whatever.
Note.- This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, qualiscunque, of whatever sort; quandocunque (quandoque), whenever; ubicunque, wherever.
b. The interrogative form doubled also makes an indefiniterelative: as, quisquis, whoever (so utut, however, ubiubi, wherever). Of quisquis both parts are declined, but the feminine is wanting: as,

Nom. quisquis (quiqui) quidquid (quicquid)

Gen.
Dat.
Acc. quemquem
Abl.
Plur. Nom. quiqui
cujuscujus
cuicui
quidquid (quicquid) quoquo

Dat., Abl. quibusquibus

This compound is rare, except in the forms quisquis, quicquid, and quoquo. The case-form quamquam is used as a conjunction, although (lit. however). Quiqui is an early form.
c. Indefinite Compounds are the following: quispiam, any; quisquam, any-at-all; quivis, quīlǐbet, any-you-please; quidam, a, a certain. Of these the first part is inflected like quis, qui, with quid or quod in the neuter.

Note. - The form -quam is from the stem quo-, perhaps -piam also ; but if so it must be dialectic (compare Oscan pam for quam). In quivis, quilibet, the second part is a verb (vis, you wish; libet, it pleases). They have the accusative case-forms quamvis, quamlibet (however, although), used as adverbs or conjunctions.
d. In aliquis, any, siquis, if any, nequis, lest any, ecquis, numquis, whether any, the second part is declined like quis, but having quă for quae, except in the nom. plur. feminine. Si quis, ne quis, num quis, are better written separately. The simple form quis is rare except in these combinations; and the compounds quispiam, aliquis (si quis, if any one; si aliquis, if some one), are often used in these, being rather more emphatic.

Note. - Aliquis is compounded with ali-, old stem of alius, but with weakened meaning. Ecquis is compounded with en.
$\boldsymbol{e}$. The enclitic -que added to the indefinite gives a Universal: as, quisque, every one; ubique, everywhere (so uterque, either of two, or both). Of quisque the first part is declined. In the compound unusquisque, both parts are declined, and sometimes separated by other words.
$f$. The relative and interrogative have a possessive adjective cujus (stem cujo-), whose; and a patrial cujas (stem cujat-), of what country.
g. Quantus, how great, qualis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the same stem, and are used as interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives tantus, talis. Quam, how, is an accusative of the same stem, corresponding to the case-form tam, so.
7. Quisquam, with ullus, any, unquam, ever, usquam, anywhere, are chiefly used in negative, interrogative, or conditional sentences, or after quam, than; sine, without ; vix, scarcely.

## 22. Correlatives.

Many adjectives, pronouns, and adverbs are found in several corresponding forms, as, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite. These are called Correlatives. Their forms are seen in the following Table:-

| DEmonstr. <br> is, that | relat <br> qui | interrog. quis? | INDEF. REL. quisquis | INDEF aliquis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tantus, so great | quantus | quantus? |  | aliquantus |
| talis, such | qualis | qualis? |  |  |
| ibi, there | ubi | ubi? | ubiŭbi | alicŭ |
| eo, thither | quo | quo? | quoquo | aliquo |
| eā, that way | quà | quā? | quâquã | aliquā |
| inde, thence | unde | unde? |  | alicunde |
| tum, then | quum, cum | quando? |  | aliquand |
| tot, so ma | quot | quot? | quotquot | aliquot |
| toties, so often | quoties | quoties? |  | aliquoties |

* Compounds with -cumque.
a. The forms tot, quot, aliquot, totidem (originally toti), are indeclinable, and may take any gender, number, or case : as,
per tot annos, tot prœliis, tot imperatores (Cic.), so many commanders, for so many years, in so many battles.
b. The correlative of the second member is often to be rendered simply as : thus,
tantum argenti quantum aeris, as much silver as copper.
c. A frequent form of correlative is found in the ablatives quo or quanto, by how much; eo or tanto, by so much, used with comparatives (rendered in Euglish the . . the) : as,
quo magis conatur, eo minus discit, the more he tries the less he learns.
d. Certain adverbs and conjunctions are often used correlatively : as,

```
et . . . et, both . . . and.
    ut . . . ita (sic), as (while) . . . so (yet).
    aut (vel) . . . aut (vel), either . . . or.
    sive (seu) . . . sive, whether . . . or.
    tam . . . quam, so (as) . . .as.
    cum (tum) . . . tum, both . . . and; not only . . . but also.
    idem . . . qui, the same . . . as.
```

Note. - For the reciprocal use of alius and alter, see Syntax (§ 47, 9).

## VERBS.

## 23. Structure.

1. The forms of a Latin verb are the following: -
a. Vorces: Active and Passive.
b. Moods : Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, Infinitive.
c. Participles: Active, Present and Future.

Passive, Perfect and Gerundive.
d. Verbal Nouns: Gerund and Supine.
e. Tenses: Present, Imperfect, Future; Perfect, Pluperfect, Future-Perfect.
$f$ : There are also separate terminations of inflection for each of the three Persons, Singular and Plural (§ 28).

Note. -The Infinitives, Participles, Gerund, and Supine are not strictly parts of the verb, as having no personal terminations, but having the form and (in general) the construction of nouns. They were, however, regarded and used as verbal forms by the Romans.
2. Special forms for the following tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb:-
a. In the Subjunctive mood, the future and future-perfect.

Nore. - These are wanting, because the original meaning and most of the uses of this mood are future. In some cases, the future participle with the corresponding tense of esse is used.
b. In the Passive voice, the perfect, pluperfect, and future-perfect, which are supplied by corresponding tenses of esse, to be, with the Perfect Participle.
c. In the Imperative mood only two tenses are found, - present and future. In the Infinitive only the present, perfect, and future.
3. The Active and Passive voices are equivalent to the corresponding English forms, except that the tenses of the passive are used with more exactness. Thus vocātur means, he is [being] called, i.e., some one is now calling him; vocātus est, he is called, i.e., the action is now over.

Note. - The passive voice often has a reflexive meaning, as, induitur vestem, he puts on his clothes; and many verbs"are active in meaning though passive in form. (See § 35, "Deponents.")

## 24. Moods.

1. The Indicative is used for direct assertion or interrogation.
2. The Subjunctive is used chiefly in commands, conditions, and dependent clauses.

Note. - The Latin Subjunctive is usually translated, in grammars, by the English potential forms, may, might, could, would, \&c., to distinguish it from the Indicative, because the English has no subjunctive in general use. But the subjunctive is used in many cases where we use the indicative ; and we use the potential in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb. Thus 1 may write (except when it follows ut, in order that) is not scribam (subj.), but licet mihi scribere; $I$ can write is possum scribere; $I$ would write is scribam, scriberem, or scribere velim (vellem); I should write, if, fe., scriberem si ... or (implying duty) oportet me scribere. A few examples of the use of the subjunctive may be seen in the following : eamus, let us go. ne cunctemur, let us not linger.
quid morer, why should I delay?
si tardior sim iratus sit, if $\dot{I}$ should be too late he would be angry. adsum ut videam, I am here to see [that I may see].
imperat ut scribam, he orders me to write. nescio quid scribam, I know not what to write. licet eas, you may go; cave cadas, don't fall. vereor ne eat, I fear he will go (vereor ut, 1 fear he will not). sunt qui putent, there are some who think.
si ita esset non manerem, if it were so I would not stay.
quæ cum dixisset abiit, when he had said this he went away.
3. The Imperative is used for exhortation or command; but its place is often supplied by the Subjunctive.
4. The Infinitive is used as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb; but often takes the place of one of the other moods.

Note. - For the Syntax of the Moods, see § 57.

## 25. Participles.

1. The Present participle has the same meaning as the English participle in -ing: as, vocans, calling; regentes, those ruling. (For its inflection, see § 16, 2.)
2. The Future participle is rarely used, except with tenses of esse, to be (see § 40), or to express purpose : as, urbs est casura, the city is about to fall; venit auditurus, he came to hear.
3. The Perfect participle is used to form certain tenses of the passive, and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, vocatus est, he was (has been) called; tectus, sheltered; acceptus, acceptable.

Note. - There is no perfect active or present passive participle in Latin. The perfect participle of deponents, however, is generally used in an active sense, as secutus, having followed. In other cases some different construction is used: as, cum venisset, having come (when he had come); equitatu praemisso, having sent forward the cavalry (the cavalry having been sent forward); dum verberatur, while being struck ( $=$ тurtópsvos).

For the Syntax of these participles, see § $7 \boldsymbol{2}$.
4. The Gerundive (sometimes called the future passive participle) has, with tenses of esse, the meaning ought or must (see § 40) : as, audiendus est, he must be heard. But, in the oblique cases, it is oftener to be translated as if it were an active participle, and governed the word it agrees with : as, ad petendam pacem, to seek peace (§ 73).

## 26. Gerund and Supine.

1. The Gerund is the neuter singular of the Gerundive. It is a verbal noun, corresponding to the English participial noun in -ing: as, loquendi caus $\bar{a}$, for the sake of speaking.
2. The Supines are the accusative and ablative (or dative) of a verbal noun of the fourth declension $(\S 12,4, a)$. They are generally translated by the English Infinitive of purpose: as, venit spectatum, he came to see; mirabile dictu, wonderful to tell.

Note. - The Supine in tum is the regular Infinitive in Sanskrit.

## 27. Tenses.

1. The tenses of a Latin verb are of two classes: (1) those denoting incomplete action, the Present, Imperfect, and Future ; (2) those denoting completed action, the Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future-Perfect.

Those of the former class, together with the Perfect, are also used to denote indefinite action.
2. The Present, Future, Pluperfect, and Future-Perfect have the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English, but are distinguished more accurately in their use: as, diu aegrōto, I have long been "[and still am] sick. cum venero scribam, when I come [shall have come] I will write.
3. The Perfect and Imperfect are both used to denote past time, the former usually to tell $a$ simple fact; the latter, a continued action, or a condition of things. The Imperfect is variously rendered in English : as,
dīcēbat, he said, he was saying, or he used to say; saepe dicēbat, he would oflen say; dictitabat, he kept saying.
The Perfect has two separate uses, distinguished as definite and historical, corresponding to the English perfect (compound) and preterite (imperfect) : as, vocāvit, he has called (definite), or he called (historical).

Note. - In Latin, and in the languages derived from Latin (as Italian and French), there are two past tenses, - the Perfect or Preterite (aorist), which merely states that the fact took place; and the Imperfect, which is used for description, or to indicate that the action was in progress. In the Northern languages (Germanic or Gothic, including English), the same tense serves for both : as,
longius prosequi vetuit, quod loci naturam ignorabat, he forbade to follow farther, because he was ignorant of the nature of the ground (B. G. v. 9.).
4. The tenses of completed action are supplied in the Passive voice by adding the corresponding tenses of incomplete action of esse to the Perfect Participle : as, occisus est, he was slain, or, he has been slain.
5. The tenses of a Latin verb are formed upon three different stems, called the present, the perfect, and the supine stems.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The tenses of incomplete action, both active and passive, are formed upon the Present stem.
b. The tenses of completed action in the active voice are formed upon the Perfect stem.
c. The perfect participle, which is used in the tenses of completed action in the passive voice, is formed upon the Supine stem.

## 28. Verb Forms.

1. Personal endings. Verbs have terminations for each of the three persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These terminations are fragments of old pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the verb-stem.

## Active.


$\boldsymbol{a}$. The present and perfect indicative have lost the m , and end in the modified stem-vowels o and i. Except sum, $I$ am, and inquam, I say.
b. The second person of the perfect indicative has for the singular sti, and for the plural stis. The third person plural has an ending of verbal origin, ērunt.
c. The Imperative has special terminations :

ACTIVE.
Sing. 2. [lost] Plur. 2. te, tote 3. to 3. nto 3. tor 3. ntor

Note. - The Passive is a peculiar Latin middle (or reflexive) form, made by adding se to the forms of the active voice, with some abrasion of their endings (the original form of se, sva, was not limited to the third person). Thus amor = amo-se, amaris = amasise, amatur = amatise. The above view seems the most probable, in spite of some objections. The ending mini in the second person plural of the passive is a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek $-\mu$ evos.

All Latin words ending in $t$, except a few in ot, $u t$, with et, at, sat, are third persons of verbs; all in nt are third persons plural. In dumtaxat, however, licet, although, and the indefinite pronouns in -libet, the meanings of the verbs are disguised.
2. Changes of Stem. These terminations appear in all the tenses of the verb; but the Stem in many parts is variously modified to receive them, sometimes by changes in its form, and sometimes by additions at the end.
a. The Present indicative and subjunctive, the Imperative, and sometimes the Future, add the personal endings directly to the present stem, with or without change of vowel: as, do, dās, dat (stem đă-) ; vŏcem (stem vǒcā-).
b. The Perfect indicative also sometimes adds them directly; but to another form of the root called the perfect stem: as, dedi, dedisti, dedit.

Note. - The i of the Perfect, which in early Latin is always long (ei, i, e) except before mus, is of doubtful origin. It is treated for convenience as part of the stem, as it is in dedi, steti, where it takes the place of the vowel a. In the suffixes vi (= fui) and si (= Skr. $\bar{a} s a)$, and in the perfects of consonant-roots, it seems to be, but probably is not, a mere connecting vowel. The s before $\mathbf{t i}$ and tis is also anomalous. Most scholars regard it as a remnant of es ; but it may be, like the others, of pronominal origin.
c. All other true verbal forms are compounded with a suffix originally a verb - which contains the personal endings: as, vocav-eram, vocav-ěro, voca-bo. The first person of the Perfect, thus compounded, produces another form of perfect stem: as, vocā-vi.
d. The Present Infinitive Active, Present Participle, and Gerundive, add nominal (noun or adjective) suffixes to the present stem: as, vocāre, vocans (antis), vocandus.
e. The Perfect infinitive adds an infinitive (esse) already formed to the perfect stem: as, vocavisse (= vocavi-esse).
$f$. The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine are formed upon what is called a supine stem, which adds $t$ - either to the Present stem or to the Root: as, vocāt-, tect- (root těg-).

Note. - Strictly, these have no common stem, but are formed with special suffixes (to-, turo-, tu-). As, however, the form to which they are added is the same for each, and as the suffixes all begin with $\mathbf{t}$, it is convenient to give the name supine stem to the form in $\mathbf{t}$. The participle in to- corresponds to the Greek verbal - $\mathbf{2}$; ; that in turo- is a development of the noun of agency ending in tor (as victor, victurus) ; that in tu-is an abstract noun of the fourth declension (§ 12, 4, a).
g. The Present Infinitive Passive is an anomalous form, made by adding -ri or $\mathbf{i}$ to the present stem: as, voco, vocäri; tego, tĕgi. (When $\mathbf{i}$ is added, the final vowel of the stem disappears.) It was anciently followed by -ěr.
h. The Future Infinitive Passive is supplied by the supine in tum with the infinitive passive of eo, to go, used impersonally: as, vocatum iri, to be about to be called.

Note. - The construction of this infinitive is different from the others, the form in tum being invariable, and the apparent subject accusative being really the object of the supine taken actively. Few verbs in fact have this form, for which fore ut with the subjunctive is often found.
3. Verb-Endings. The scheme of Verb-Endings, as they are formed by suffixes or personal endings, is as follows : -
a. Verbal Forms.

ACTIVE VOICE.
PASSIVE VOICE.
Present.

| Indicative. [o] | Subjunctive. <br> m (vowel-change) | Indicative. <br> [or] | Subjunctive. <br> $r$ (vowel-change) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| s | s | ris or re | ris or re |
| t | $t$ | tur | tur |
| mus | mus | mur | mur |
| tis | tis | mĭni | minni |
| nt | nt | ntur | ntur |
|  | Imper | FECT. |  |
| bam | rem | bar | rer |
| bas | res | bäris(re) | rēris(re) |
| bat | ret | bātur | rētur |
| bāmus | rēmus | bāmur | rēmur |
| bātis | rētis | bamĭni | remini |
| bant | rent | bantur | rentur |

Future.

| bo, or am (vowel-change) | bor, or ar (vowel-change) |
| :--- | :--- |
| bis es | bĕris(re) ēris(re) |
| bit et | bĭtur ètur |
| bĭmus ēmus | bĭmur èmur |
| bĭtis ètis | bimĭni emĭni |
| bunt ent | buntur entur |

Perfect.

| i | ĕrim |
| :--- | :--- |
| isti | ĕris |
| it | ěrit |
| Ĭmus | erı̆mus |
| istis | erřtis |
| ērunt <br> or ēre | ĕrint |

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tus (ta } \begin{cases}\text { sum } & \text { sim } \\
\text { es } & \text { sis } \\
\text { tum) } & \text { sit }\end{cases} \\
& \text { ti (tae, } \begin{cases}\text { sŭmus } & \text { simus } \\
\text { estis } & \text { sītis } \\
\text { sunt } & \text { sint }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Pluperfect.

| ěram | issem |
| :--- | :--- |
| ěras | isses |
| ērat | isset |
| erāmus | issēmus |
| erātis | issētis |
| ěrant | issent |

tus(ta, $\begin{cases}\text { ĕram } & \text { essem } \\ \text { eras } & \text { esses } \\ \text { erat } & \text { esset }\end{cases}$
ti(tae, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { erāmus } \\ \text { essēmus } \\ \text { erātis } \\ \text { erant }\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { essētis } \\ \text { essent }\end{array}\right.$

Fut. Perfect.
ĕro
ĕris
ĕrit
erĭmus
erǐtis
ěrint

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { tus (ta, } \begin{array}{c}
\text { ero } \\
\text { tum })
\end{array} \begin{array}{l}
\text { eris } \\
\text { erit }
\end{array} \\
\text { ti (tae, }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { erĭmus } \\
\text { ta })
\end{array} \begin{array}{l}
\text { erǐtis } \\
\text { erunt }
\end{array}\right.
\end{gathered}
$$

Imperative.

| - | re |
| :--- | :--- |
| to | tor |
| te, tōte | minni |
| nto | ntor |

## b. Nominal Forms.

Infinitive.
Present. re (Pres. stem) ri or $i$ (old rier, ier)
Perfect. sse (Perf. stem) tus ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{um}$ ) esse
Future. turus ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{um}$ ) esse tum iri.
Participle.

Present. ns, ntis
Perfect.
Future.
Supine.
$\qquad$
turus, a, um
tus, a, um
Gerundive. ndus, a, um

Note. - The origin and meaning of some of the above verb-endings may be given as follows. The suffix bam is an imperfect of bHU, which appears in fiu, futurus, fio, the Greek фú $\omega$, and English be;-rem (for sem) is an optative or subjunctive imperfect of es, which appears in sum, $\epsilon i \mu l$, am, \&c.;-bo is a future, and vi a perfect, of BHU;-si is a perfect of es, and is kindred with the aorist-ending $\sigma a$, though not of the same formation; - erim is an optative form of es corresponding to $\operatorname{sim}$; - ero is the future of es (for es-io).

## 29. Esse and its Compounds.

The verb esse, to be, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Note. - The present participle, which should be sens (compare Sanskrit sunt), appears in that form in ab-sens, presesens; and as ens (compare $\omega \nu$ ) in poteens. The simple form ens is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a participle or abstract noun, in the forms ens, Being; entia, things which are.

## Principal Parts: Present, sum, 1 am.

 Infinitive, esse, to be. Perfect, fui, I was or have been. Future Participle, futūrus, about to be.Present.
indicative.
Sing. 1. sum, I am.
2. ĕs, thou art.
3. est, he (she, it) is.

Plur. 1. sŭmus, we are.
2. estis, you are.
3. sunt, they are.
subjunctive.
$\operatorname{sim}, I$ am, may be, \&c. (see sis [examples on p. 51). sit
simus
sītis
sint

Imperfect.

Sing. 1. ěram, I was.
2. ĕras, thou wast.
3. ěrat, he was.

Plur. 1. erāmus, we were.
2. erātis, you were.
3. erant, they were.
essem, was (would or forrem esses, might be, \&•c.). forres
 essēmus
essētis
essent . forent

Future.
Sing. 1. ĕro, $I$ shall be.
2. ěris, thou wilt be.
3. ĕrit, he will be.

Plur. 1. erĭmus, we shall be.
2. erĭtis, you will be.
3. ĕrunt, they will be.

Perfect.
Sing. 1. fui, I was (have been). fuĕrim, was (have been, may
2. fuisti, thou wast. fuĕris [have been).
3. fuit, he was.' fuěrit

Plur. 1. fuĭmus, we were. fuerĭmus
2. fuistis, you were.
3. fuērunt, they were. or fuēre.

Pluperfect.

Sing. 1. fuĕram, I had been. fuissem, had been (might or
2. fuĕras, thou hadst been. fuisses [would have been).
3. fuĕrat, he had been.

Plur. 1. fuerāmus, we had been.
2. fuerātis, you had been.
3. fuĕrant, they had been.
fuisset
fuissēmus
fuissētis
fuissent

## Future Perfect.

Sing. 1. fuĕro, $I$ shall have been.
2. fuĕris, thou wilt have been.
3. fuĕrit, he will have been.

Plur. 1. fuerĭmus, we shall have been.
2. fueritis, you will have been.
3. fuerint, they will have been.

Imperative.

Present. ěs, be thou.
Future. esto, thou shalt be. esto, he shall be.
este, be ye.
estote, ye shall be.
sunto, they shall be.

## Infinitive.

Peesent. esse, to be.
Perfect. fuisse, to have been.
Future. fore or futurus esse, to be about to be.
Future Participle. futurus, a, um, about to be.
Rare Forms. Fut. Indic. escit, escunt (strictly inchoative pres., § 39). Pres. Subj. siem, fuam.

Note. - The root of the verb esse is es-, which in the imperfect is changed to er- ( $\S 1,3, e)$, and in many cases is shortened to s -. Some of its modifications, as found in several languages more or less distantly related to Latin, may be seen in the following Table; - the "Indo-European" being the primitive or theoretic form, and the form syām corresponding to the Latin siem, sim :-

| Ind.-Eur. | Sanskrit. |  | Greek. | Slavonic. | Lithuanian. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| as-mi | as-mi | syām (opt.) | ${ }^{\prime \prime} \mu \mu \dagger$ | yes-mi | es-mi |
| as-si | as-i | syãs | $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\dagger} \dagger$ | yes-si | es-i |
| as-ti | as-ti | sy $\bar{a} t$ | Ėбт¢ | yes-ti | es-ti |
| as-masi | s-mas | syāma | écouév | yes-mu | es-me |
| as-tasi | s-tha | syāta | ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ | yes-te | es-te |
| as-anti | s-anti | syus | ¢̇vit $\dagger$ | s-unti | es-ti |
|  |  |  | $\dagger$ Old F |  |  |

The Perfect and Supine stems, fui, futu-, are kindred with the Greek (そфv, was), and with the English be.
a. The verb esse is compounded, without any change of its inflection, with many prepositions. In the compound prodesse, to profit, pro retains its original d where followed by e: as, prosum, prodes, prodest, prosŭmus, prodestis, prosunt.
b. Esse is also compounded with the adjective potis or pote, able, in the verb posse. Its inflection, with that of prodesse, is given in the following:-

Present.

| indic. | subJ. | INDIC. | sUBJ. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| possum, I can. | possim | prosum | prosim |
| potes, thou canst. | possis | prodes | prosis |
| potest, he can. | possit | prodest | prosit |
| possŭmus, we can. | possīmus | prosŭmus | prosīmus |
| potestis, you can. | possīis | prodestis | prositis |
| possunt, they can. | possint | prosunt | prosint |

Imperfect.

| potĕram | possem | prodĕram | prodessem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| potĕro |  | proděro |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| potui | potuĕrim | profui | profuĕrim |
|  | Plup |  |  |
| potuĕram | potuissem | profuěram | profuissem |
|  | Future | FECT. |  |
| potuĕro |  | profuĕro |  |

Imperative.
prodes, prodesto, \&c. Infinitive.
Pr. posse Perf. potuisse Pr. prodesse Perf. profuisse Participles.
[potens, powerful.] profuturus, about to help.
30. Conjugation.

There are in Latin four principal forms of Present Stems, ending respectively in $\bar{a}, \bar{e}$, ě, $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$. With this difference of stem most of the other differences of conjugation coincide.

Verbs are accordingly classed in four regular conjugations, distinguished by the vowel before re in the Present Infinitive Active, which is the same in each case as those given above.

Note. - This mode of classification was invented by the Roman grammarians, and has been generally adopted by the moderns. In fact, however, the vowels a, e, i (long), found in the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations, are different corruptions of the form aya, which in the original language was added to roots in one form of present stems. All other forms of present stems, except. a few unmodified, had originally, or received in Latin, a suffix ending in (or consisting of) a short, which was corrupted to $\mathbf{e}$ or i short. These are collected in the Third Conjugation. A few roots ending in a vowel were drawn - perhaps by vowel-increase - into the analogy of the other conjugations; and a few of the fourth conjugation had iya instead of Aya.

1. First Conjugation. Most verbs of the first conjugation retain the stem-vowel ( $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ) throughout, except in the present indicative, which loses it before $\mathbf{0}$, and the present subjunctive, where it is changed to $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$.

Note. - Dare, to give - stem originally dă - retains a short, except in da and das. The Subjunctive with changed vowel (e) corresponds to the Greek and Sanskrit Optative, and is formed by the addition of a tense of $\mathbf{i}$, to go, $\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{i}$ becoming $\mathbf{e}$.
a. In the Future, the ending -bo, \&c., is added to the present stem: as, vocābo.
b. The Perfect stem adds vi to that of the present: as, vocāvi. But

1. A few verbs, either always or occasionally, add vi not to the present stem, but to the root, $v$ becoming $u$ : as, sono, sonui (see p. 67).
2. Two verbs, do, sto, form their perfect stem by reduplication: dědi, stěti.
c. The Supine stem adds $\mathbf{t}$ to the present stem; but verbs that add vi to the root add t in like manner, sometimes with a connecting vowel: as, seco, sectus; domo, domitus.
3. Second Conjugation. Only a few verbs of the second conjugation retain $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ throughout.
a. The Present Indicative has e before o in the first person; in the Present Subjunctive a (originally $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ) is inserted after $\mathbf{e}$ : as, deleo, deleam.

Note. - The a in the present subjunctive is borrowed from the third conjugation. (See next head, 3, e, N.)
b. The Future (as in the first conjugation) adds -bo, \&c., to the present stem: as, delēbo.
c. In a few verbs, the Perfect stem adds vi to the present, as deleo, delēvi; but in most this termination is added to the root, as moneo, monui (see p. 69).
d. In a few, the root is reduplicated, and in several -si is added to the root, or its vowel is strengthened: as, tondeo, totondi; măneo, mansi ; lugeo, luxi; căveo, cāvi.
e. For the Supine stem, those which add -vi to the stem add t also to the stem; those which add vi to the root add $t$ to the root, with the connecting-vowel $i$; those which form the perfect otherwise add t (or its weakened form s) to the root: as, delētus, monĭtus, tonsus, mansus, cautus.
3. Third Conjugation. To the third conjugation belong those verbs which form the present stem in any other way than by adding a long vowel to the root.
a. The Present Stem is formed in eight different ways, in all of which $\breve{\text { e }}$ (original $\breve{a}$ ), or else a suffix containing it, is added to the Root. Besides this addition, -

1. The vowel of the root is-lengthened (vowel-increase): as in dūco, fido, nūbo (compare dŭcis, perfídus, pronŭba; also G1. $\lambda \varepsilon i \pi \omega$, root $\lambda \iota \pi-)$.
2. The root is reduplicated: as in sisto, bǐbo, gigno, from the root stă- (in stătus), pă- (in pŏtus), gĕn- (in gĕnus; compare үі́ $\gamma \nu о \mu a \iota$, root $\gamma \varepsilon v$-).
3. The root is strengthened by the insertion of $\mathbf{n}(\mathrm{m})$ before its final consonant: as in findo, frango, cumbo (compare think, thought ; $\mu a \nu \theta a ́ v \omega$, root $\mu a \theta$-).
4. Final 1 or $\mathbf{r}$ of the root is doubled by assimilation of an added consonant: as in fello, pello (compare $\sigma \tau \varepsilon ́ \lambda \lambda \omega$, root $\sigma \tau \varepsilon \lambda$-), verro.
5. The consonant $\mathbf{n}$ is added to the root: as in cerno, lino, temno (compare $\tau \varepsilon ́ \mu \nu \omega$, root $\tau \varepsilon \mu$-).
6. The root adds sc or isc (originally and often still inceptive) : as in disco ( $=$ dicsco, root dĭc), nascor (root gnă), nanciscor (root năc, compare фव́đк $\omega$, єن́рíбк $)$.
7. The root adds $t$ : as in pecto, plecto, mitto (compare ко́тт $\omega$ ).
8. The root adds $\check{1}$ (originally $y$ ) in the following: căpio, cŭpio, -cŭtio, făcio, fơdio, fŭgio, jăcio, -lĭcio, părio, quătio (-cŭtio), răpio, săpio, -spĭcio.

Note. - Verbal stems in u add merely the vowel e, and are of the third conjugation. The u may be radical, as in suo, pluo, fluo ; or developed from a palatal, as in loquor, stinguo (cf. otíl $\omega$ ) ; or may belong to the noun in denominatives, as statuo (statu-s), acuo (acu-s). Stems in o are lost, as po- (cf. potum); or have become of the first conjugation, as boo, boare.
b. The stem-vowel $\check{e}$ is weakened to $\check{\mathbf{1}}$ in several forms of the Present indicative and imperative; is lengthened to $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ in the Imperfect; and undergoes other changes exhibited in the paradigm.
c. The Future is formed (without the suffix bo) by vowelchanges to a and e before the personal endings.

Note. - The a (properly long) of the future is borrowed from the present subjunctive; the forms in e have the same origin as the present subjunctive of the first conjugation, and are properly optative.
d. The Perfect stem is formed in five different ways:-

1. The root is reduplicated: as in cădo, cecĭdi; curro, cŭcurri; disco, didĭci.
2. The, root-vowel is increased, ă becoming $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$, and $\breve{\mathrm{r}}, \mathrm{\succ}, \breve{\mathrm{u}}$ being simply lengthened : as in căpio, cēpi; fǒdio, fōdi; fŭgio, fūgi.
3. The same form appears in the perfect as in the present stem : this is regular with verbs of this conjugation in uo (*०) : as, acuo, acui; solvo, solvi.

Note. - It is probable that in the last two cases the root was originally reduplicated; but that the reduplication was retained only where vowel-increase did not take place.
4. The suffix si is added to the root: as in carpo, carpsi ; gěro, gessi; sūmo, sumpsi; dico, dixi; těgo, texi.
5. The suffix ui (vi) is added to the root: as in corlo, colui; frĕmo, fremui; gigno, genui; rapio, rapui. Before this suffix a long vowel of various origin is often found: as in cŭpio, cupīvi; peto, petivi; sperno, sprēvi.

Note. - Both suffixes are combined in the following: necto, nexui; plecto, plexui. A few verbs vary: as, pango, panxi (pegi or pepigi); vello, velli or vulsi.
$e$. The Present Subjunctive changes ě to $\overline{\mathbf{a}}:$ as, vehĕre, vehās.
Note. - This form with $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ corresponds to the Greek and Sanskrit subjunctive with long vowel, and proceeds from the addition of another a (short) : compare ÉXns, vahāsi.
f. The Supine stem is formed by adding to the root t-, which in many cases takes euphonically the form s- (§ I, $3, f .4$ ).

Note. - A few roots take a connecting vowel before this affix, and some have both forms. When this is the case, the future participle and derivative verb take the longer form : as, ortus, oriturus; actus (ago), agito.
g. Some verbs of the third conjugation form the other parts upon the (modified) present stem as a root: as, fingo, finxi, fict(fig) ; jungo, junxi, junct- (jŭg).
7. In verbs which add $\mathbf{i}$ to the root in the present stem, this vowel is lost where it would be followed by er or $\check{1}$ (except in the future third person singular) : as in capit, capĕret, capiet.
4. Fourth Conjugation. Verbs of the fourth conjugation retain $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ throughout, except before another vowel.
a. Several forms of the present stem have in addition the final vowels of the third conjugation. In the Imperfect the regular form (retained in ibam, from eo) is often found in early Latin.
b. The Future does not take bo, 'but has ia and ie (from the third conjugation) before the personal endings. In early Latin the form in bo (retained in ibo) șometimes occurs.
c. The Perfect stem adds vi to the present stem: as, finio, finivi. A few verbs add it to the root, as aperio, aperui; several add si, as sentio, sensi; and in a few the perfect is the same as the present stem, with or without vowel-increase: as, repĕrio, repěri; vĕnio, vēni.
d. The Supine stem adds $t$ - to the present: as, finio, finitus. A few add it to the root: as, salio, saltus; sepělio, sepultus.
5. Principal Parts. The principal parts of a verb, which determine its conjugation throughout, are the following: 1. Present Indicative (showing the present stem); 2. Present Infinitive (the conjugation) ; 3. Perfect (the perfect stem) ; 4. Supine (the supine stem).
a. The regular forms of conjugation are seen in the following:

1. vŏco, vocāre, vocāvi, vocātum, call.
2. dĕleo, delēre, delēvi, delētum, destroy.
3. carpo, carpĕre, carpsi, carptum, gather.
4. audio, audīre, audivi, auditum, hear.

In the second conjugation, however, the characteristic $\bar{e}$ rarely appears in the perfect and supine: thus the type of this conjugation is -
mŏneo, monēre, monui, monĭtum, warn.
b. What is called the Synopsis of a verb consists of the first person singular of each tense, with infinitive and participles, given in regular order: as, of ămo, I love -
Innic. amo, amābam, amābo, amāvi, amavěram, amavĕro.
SubJ. amem, amārem, amavĕrim, amavissem.
Imp. ama, amāto.
Inf. amāre, amavisse.
Part. amans, amatūrus, amātus, amandus.
Notice that in all verbs the Imperf. and Pluperfect Subjunctive may be formed by adding the personal-endings to the present and perfect infinitive; and the Imperative Passive (second person) is the same in form with the present infinitive active.
c. In many verbs the principal parts take the form of two or more different conjugations: as,

1, 2. dŏmo, domāre, domui, domĭtum, subdue.
2, 3. augeo, augēre, auxi, auctum, increase.
3, 4. pěto, petĕre, petivi, petītum, seek.
4, 3. vincio, vincīre, vinxi, vinctum, bind.
In these the conjugation is said to be denoted by the first or present stem.
d. The compounds of many verbs vary from the forms of the primitive. This variation is seen especially (1) in the change of the vowel of the root, $\check{a}$ in open syllables becoming $\check{\mathfrak{r}}$ and in close syllables ě, while ĕ becomes 1̆: as, căpio, captum, concĭpio, conceptum; tĕneo, contĭneo; (2) in the loss of the reduplication: as, concĭdo, concĭdi. (This is, however, retained in compounds of disco, do, posco, sto, and in some of those of curro).
6. Special Forms. The following special forms are found in the conjugation of many verbs:-
a. In tenses formed upon the Perfect stem, v between two vowels is often suppressed, and the second vowel merged in the first (unless a or e follows $\mathbf{i}$ or $\mathbf{u}$ ): as, amasse =amavisse ; flestis $=$ flevistis ; audieram = audiveram; nosse = novisse; noram $=$ noveram. This is especially frequent in verbs of the fourth conjugation, and is regular in the compounds of eo: as, abiit for abivit.
b. In many forms $\mathbf{s}$ with its vowel is suppressed in like manner when it would be repeated: as, dixti for dixisti.
c. Four verbs - dīco, dūco, făcio, fĕro - with several of their compounds, drop the vowel-termination of the Imperative, making dīc, dūc, făc, fer (but effice, confice). The forms dice, duce, face (never fere) occur in early Latin.
d. For the imperative of scio, the future form scito is always used in the singular, and scitote usually in the plural.
e. The following are ancient forms, rarely found except in poetry : -

1. In the fourth conjugation -ibam, -ibo for -iebam, -iam (fut.);
2. In the present subjunctive -im: as in duim, perduim (retained also in religious formulas);
3. In the perf. subj. and fut. perf. -so, -sim: as, faxo, faxim;
4. In the passive infinitive-ier: as, vocarier for vocari.
5. Parallel Forms. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use : as,
lavo, lavāre or lavĕre, to wash.
scateo, scatēre or scatĕre, to gush.
ludifico, āre or ludificor; āri, to mock.
6. First Conjugation.
active voice.
indicative. . Subjunctive.
Present, I love or am loving. ămo, I love. amem amas, thou lovest. ames amat, he loves. amet amāmus, we love. amēmus amātis, you love. amētis. amant, they love. ament

## PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. I am beloved.
amor amāris (re) amēris (re) amātur amētur amāmur amēmur amamĭni amemĭni amantur amentur

Imperfect, I loved (used to love).
amābam, I loved. amārem amābas amābat amabāmus amabātis amābant
amāres amāret amarēmus amarētis amārent

Future, I shall love.
amābo, I shall love. amābis
amābit
amabĭmus
amabĭtis
amābunt
Perfect, I loved (have loved). amāvi, I loved. amavĕrim amavisti amavit amavǐmus amavistis amavērunt (ēre) amavĕrint

Pluperfect, I had loved. amavěram, I had amavissem amavĕras [loved. amavisses amaverrat amavisset amaverāmus amaveratis amavĕrant amavissent amatus erat amatus esset
amavěris amavěrit amaverĭmus amaverïtis amaverrint amavissēmus amati erāmus amavissētis amati erātis amavissent amati erant

I was loved. amābar amabāris (re) amabātur amabāmur amabamĭni amabantur
amārer amarēris (re) amarētur ămarēmur amaremĭni amarentur

I shall be loved.
amābor
amaběris (re)
amabǐtur
amabĭmur
amabimĭni
amabuntur
I was (have been) loved.
amātus sum amatus sim amatus es amatus sis amatus est - amatus sit
amati sumus amati simus amati estis amati sītis amati sunt amati sint

I had been loved.
amatus eram amatus essem amatus eras amatus esses amati essēmus amati essētis amati essent
Future Perfect, I shall have loved. I shall have been loved. amavěro, I shall have loved. amatus ero amavěris amavěrit amaverĭmus amaverĭtis amavěrint amatus eris amatus erit
amati erĭmus
amati erǐtis
amati erunt

ACTIVE. Imperative. PASSIVE.
Pr. ămā, love thou. amāte, love ye.
Fut. amāto, he shall love. amatote, ye shall love. amanto, they shall love.
amāre, be thou loved. amamini, be ye loved. amātor, he shall be loved.
amantor, they shall be loved.

## Noun and Adjective Forms.

## infinitive.

Pres. amārep to love.
Perf. amavisse, to have loved.
Fut. amatūrus esse, to be about to love.
amāri, to be loved. amātus esse, to have been loved. amātum īri, amātus fore.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. amans, loving.
Perf. - amatus, beloved.
Fut. amaturus, about to love.
Gerundive. amandus, a, um, to be loved-(lovely).
Gerund. amandum, -di, -do, loving.
Supines. amātum, amātu, to love.

1. There are about 360 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them formed directly upon a noun or adjective-stem, to which they generally give the force and meaning of an active verb: as, armo, to arm (arma) ; caeco, to blind (caecus) ; exsulo, to be in exile (exsul). Their conjugation is usually regular, like amo; though of many only a few parts are found in use.
2. Those which form their Perfect and Supine stems differently are the following, - those marked $\dagger$ having also regular forms; and those preceded by a hyphen being found only in compounds : -
crepo, crepui, crepit-, resound. plico, plicui, -plicit-, fold. cubo, cubui, cubite, lie down. poto, potavi, $\dagger$ pot-, drink. do, dare, dedi, dat-, give. domo, domui, domit-, subdue. sono, sonui, sonit-, sound frico, fricui, $\dagger$ frict-, rub. juyo, juvi, jut-, help. mico, micui, glitter. neco, $\dagger$ necui, $\dagger$ nect-, kill.

## 32. Second Conjugation.

## active voice.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present, I warn.
mŏneo, I warn. moneam mones, you warn. moneas monet, he warns. moneat monēmus moneāmus monētis moneātis monent moneant

PASSIVE VOICE.
indicative. subuunctive.
I am warned.
moneor monear monēris (re) moneäris (re) monētur monēmur monemini monentur

Imperfect, I warned (was warning). I was warned.
monēbam monērem monēbar monērer monēbas monēres monēbat monēret monebāmus monebātis monēbant

## Future, I shall warn.

monēbo monēbis monēbit monebĭmus monebĭtis monēbunt
monēbar monērer monebāris (re) monerēris (re) monebātur monerētur monebāmur monerēmur monebamĭni moneremĭni monebantur monerentur I shall be warned.
monēbor
monebĕris (re)
monebĭtur
monebĭmur
monebimĭni
monebuntur
Perfect, I warned (have warned). I was (have " arned. monui monuĕrim monĭrou am situnitus sim monuisti monuit monuĭmus monuistis monuērunt (re) monuerint

Piuperfect, I had warned. monuěram monueras monuerat monueramus -nnueratis ... ${ }^{\text {ant }}$
monuissem monuisses monuisset monitus erat monuissēmus moniti eramus monuissētis moniti eratis monuissent moniti erant
monitus sis monitus sit moniti simus moniti sitis moniti sint

> I had been warned.
monitus eram monitus essem monitus eras monitus esses monitus esset moniti essemus moniti essetis moniti essent

Fut. ミ'erfect, I shall hāve warned. I shall have been warned.
monuĕro monuĕris monuĕrit monuerĭmus monuerĭtis monuĕrint
monitus ero
monitus eris
monitus erit
moniti erimus
moniti eritis
moniti erunt
active.
Sing. Plur.
Pr. mone, warn. monēte
F. monēto monetote monēto

IMPERATIVE.
Sing.
monēre
monētor

PASSIVE.
Plur. monemĭni monentor

## INFINITIVE.

Pr. monēre Pf. monuisse Pr. monēri Pf. monitus esse F. monitūrus esse F. monătum iri (monitus fore) PARTICIPLES.
monens moniturus monǐtus monendus Ger. monendum, di, \&ic. SUP. moň̆tum monĭtu

1. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of condition, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive form in -sco: as, caleo, calor, calǐdus, calesco; timeo, timor, timídus.
2. Most verbs of the second conjugation form their perfect and supine like moneo. The following have ēvi and êtum: deleo, destroy; fleo, weep; neo, spin; and compounds of $-n l e 0$, fill. The rema ${ }^{\text {ix }}$ er are -
algeo, alsi: ${ }^{\text {it }}$ ardeo, arsi, ars-, burit. audeo, ausus sum, dare. augeo, auxi, auct-, increase. caveo, cavi, caut-, care. censeo, censui, cens-, valuen cieo, civi, cit-, excite. doceo, docui, doct-, teack. faveo, favi, faut-, favor. ferveo, fervi (ferbui), glow. foveo, fovi, fot-, cherish. frigeo, frixi, be cold. fulgeo, fulsi, shine. gaudeo, gavisus sum, rejoice. hæreo, hæsi, hæs-, cling. indulgeo, indulsi, indult-, injubeo, jussi, juss-, order. [dulge. langueo, lansui, be faint. liqueo, liqui (licui), melt. luceo, luxi, shine.
lugeo, luxi, luct-, mourn. maneo, marsi, mans-, wait.
misceo, cui, mixt- (mist-), mix.
mordeo, mc mordi, mors-, bite.
moveo, movi, mot-, moze.
mulceo, mutsi, muls-, soothe.
mulgeo, si (xi), muls-(mulct-), milk.
niveo, nivi (nixi), wink.
paveo, pavi. fear.
pendeo, pependi, hang.
prandeo, prandi, prans-, dine.
rideo, risi, ris-, laugh.
sedeo, sedi, sess-, sit.
soleo, solitus sum, be twont.
sorbeo, sorbui (sorpsi), suck.
spondeo, spopondi, spons-, to
strideo, stridi, whiz. [pledpe. suadeo, suasi, suas-, urge.
teneo, tenui, tent-, hold
tergeo, tersi, ters-, wit $i_{t}^{\text {. }}$
tondeo, totondi, tons-, shear.
torqueo, torsi, tort-, twist.
torreo, torrui, tost-, roast.
turgeo, tursi, swell.
urgeo, ursi, urge.
video, vidị, vis-, see.
voveo, vovi, vot-, vozu.
[33.

## active voice.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present, I rule.
rĕgo, I rule. regam regis, thou rulest. regas regit, he rules. regĭmus, we rule. regāmus regĭtis, you rule. regātis regunt, they rule. regant

Imperiect, I ruled (was ruling). regēbam, I ruled. regĕrem regēbas regēbat regebāmus regebātis regēbant

Future, I shall rule.
regaph, I shall rule.
reges
reget
regēmus
regētis
regent
Perfect,' I ruled (have ruled). rexi, I ruled. rexěrim rexisti rexĕris rexit
ravinus rexistis rexērunt (re)

Pluperfect, I had ruled. rexĕram, I had rexissem rexĕras [ruled. rexisses rexĕrat rexisset
rexerāmus
rexerātis
rexĕrant
regĕres
regĕret
regeiemus
ugeretis
regĕrent,

## active. tmperative. passive.

Sing. Plur. Sing. Plur.
PR. 2. rege, mule. regĭte regimini
F. 2. regĭto
3. regĭto
regitōte
regunto regĭtor infinitive.
reguntor Pf. rectus esse
F. rectum iri (rectus fore) PARTICIPLES.

| regens recturus | rectus | regendus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GER. regendum, di, \&c. | SUP. rectum, rectu |  |

Verbs in io (present stem) are inflected as follows:indicative. Subjunctive. indicative. subjunctive.

Present, 1 take. căpio, I take. capiam capis, thou takest. capias capit, he takes. capiat capǐmus, we take. capiāmus capĭtis, you take. capiātis capiunt, they take. capiant

I am taken.
capior capiar
capĕris (re). capiāris (re)
capǐtur capiātur
capı̆mur capiāmur
capimĭni capiamĭni
capiuntur capiantur

Imperfect, I took' (was taking). capiēbam, I took. capĕrem capiēbas capiēbat capiebāmus capiebātis capiēbant
capĕres
capĕret
caperēmus
caperētis
capĕrent

1 was taken.
capiēbar capěrer
capiebāris (re) caperēris (re)
capiebātur caperētur
capiebāmur caperēmur
capiebamĭni caperemĭni
capiebantur caperentur

Future, 1 shall take. capiam capies capiet
capièmus capiētis capient

Perf. cepi ceperim
Plup. ceperam cepissem F. P. cepero

I shall be taken.
capiar capiēmur
capiëris (re) capiemĭni
capiētur capientur

IMPERATIVE.

| cape <br> capíto <br> capíto | capĭte <br> capitote <br> capiunto | capĕre | capimini |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Infin. | capĕre cepisse | capĭtor | capiuntor |
| Part. capiens capturus | captus |  | captus esse |
| capiendus |  |  |  |

1. The following simple verbs of this conjugation form the perfect and supine stems like rego, by adding $s$ and $t$ to the root. Those marked $\ddagger$ take s in the supine: -
ango, choke; carpo, pluck; cingo, bind; $\ddagger$ claudo, shut; clĕpo, steal; cōmo, comb; cŏquo, cook; dēmo, take away dīco, say: dūco, guide; $\ddagger$ figo, fix; $\ddagger$ flecto, bend; frīgo, fry, $\ddagger$ laedo, hurt; lingo, lick; $\ddagger$ lūdo, play; nūbo, marry; $\ddagger$ pecto, comb; $\ddagger$ plaudo, applaud; plecto, twine; prōmo, bring out, $\ddagger$ rādo, scrape; rěgo, rule; rēpo, creep; $\ddagger$ rōdo, gnaw; sarpo, prune; scalpo, scrape; scribo, write; serpo, crawl; sūmo, take; tĕgo, shelter; tingo, stain; traho, drag; $\ddagger$ trūdo, thrust ; $\ddagger$ vādo, go; veho, draw; vivo, live.

Note. - In these verbs, $\mathbf{h}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are treated as palatals, becoming $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{c t} ; \mathbf{p}$ takes the place of $\mathbf{b}$, and is inserted euphonically after $\mathbf{m}$, before $\mathbf{s}$ and $\mathbf{t}$; while $\mathbf{d}$ and $\mathbf{t}$ are omitted: as in scripsi, sumpsi, flexi, plausi; demo, promo, sumo, are old compounds.
2. Verbs in io of the third conjugation are conjugated as follows:-
capio, cepi, capt-, take. cupio, cupivi, cupīt-, desire. -cutio, -cussi, -cuss-, shake. facio, feci, fact-, make. fodio, fodi, foss-, dig. fugio, fugi, fugit-, flee. jacio, jeci, jact-, throw.
-licio, -lexi, -lect-, entice. pario, peperi, part- (pariturus), bring forth.
quatio, 一, quass-, slake.
rapio, rapui, rapt-, seize.
sapio, sapivi, or sapui, be wise.
-spicio, -spexi, -spect-, viezv.
3. Those otherwise conjugated are the following (see § $30,3, a, b)$.
ago, egi, act-, drive. alo, alui, alt- (alit-), nourish. arcesso, ivi, arcessit-, summon. bibo, bibi, bibit-, drink. cado, cecidi, cas-, fall. cædo, cecidi, cæs-, cut. cano, cecini, cant-, sing. capesso, capessivi, undertake. cedo, cessi, cess-, yield. -cello, -cellui(-culi), -cels-, push. -cendo, -cendi, -cens-, kindle. cerno, -crevi, -cret-, decree. colo, colui, cult-, dwell, till. compesco, compescui, restrain. consulo, lui, consult-, consult. cresco, crevi, cret-, increase.
cudo, -cudi, -cus-, forge. [down. -cumbo [cub], cubui, cubit-, lie curro, cucurri, curs-, run. depso, depsui, depst-, knead. disco [DIC], didici(discit-), learn. divido, divisi, divis-, divide. -do, -didi, -dit- (as in abdo, \&c., with credo, vendo), $p u t$ [DHA] edo, edi, esum, eat $(\S 37,5)$. emo, emi, empt-, buy.
facesso, facessi, facessīt-, execute. fallo, fefelli, fals-, deceive. -fendo, -fendi, -fens-, ward off: fero, ferre, tuli, lat-, bear (§ 37, findo [FID], fidi, fiss-, split. [4). fido, fisus sum, trust..
fingo [FIG], finxi, fict-, fashion. premo, pressi, press-, press. fluo, fluxi, flux-, flozv. [break. pungo [PUG], pupugi, punct-, frango [FRAG], fregi, fract-, to prick. fremo, fremui, fremit-, roar. quæro, quæsivi, quæsīt-, seek. frendo, -fresi, fress-, guash. fundo [FUD], fudi, fus-, pour. furo, furui, rage.
gemo, gemui, gemit-, groan. gero, gessi, gest-, carry. quiesco, quievi, quiet-, rest. gigno [GEN], genui, genit-, beget. scando, scansi, scans-, climb. ico, ici, ict-, hit.
rudo, rudivi, rudīt-, bray. rumpo [RUP], rupi, rupt-, burst. ruo, rui, rut- (ruit-), fall. scabo, scabi, scratch. incesso, incessivi, attack. [voke. scisco, scivi, scīt-, decree. lacesso, lacessivi, lacessit-, pro- sero, sevi, sat-, sowv. lambo, lambi, lambit-, lap. sero, serui, sert-, entwine. lavo, lavi, lot- (laut-), wash sido, sidi (sedi), sess-, settle.

> (reg. of ist conj.). sino, sivi, sit-, permit.
lego, legi(intellexi), lect-, gather. sisto [sTA], stiti, stat-, stop. lino [Li], levi (livi), lit-, smear. solvo, solvi, solut-, pay, loose. linquo [LIC], -liqui, -lict-, leave. spargo, sparsi, spar:s-, scatter. luo, lui, luit-, wash. mando, mansi, mans-, chew. mergo, mersi, mers-, plunge. meto, messui, mess-, reap. mitto, misi, miss-, send.
molo, molui, molit-, grind. .
necto [NEC], nexi (nexui), nex-,
weave.
nosco[GNo], novi, not-(cognit-), nuo, nui, nuit-, nod. [know. tango [TAG], tetigi, tact-, touck. occulo, occului, occult-, hide. tendo, tetendi (-tendi), tenspando, pandi, pans- (pass-), (tent-), stretch. open.
pango [PAG], †pegi (pepigi), tero, trivi, trīt-, rub. $\dagger$ pact-, fasten.
parco, peperci, parcit-, spare. pasco, pavi, past-, feed. pello, pepuli, puls-, drive. pendo, pependi, pens-, weigh. pergo, perrexi, perrect-, go on. peto, petivi, petitt-, seek.
sperno, sprevi, spret-, scorn.
sterno, stravi, strat-, strew.
sterto, stertui, snore.
strepo, strepui, strepit-, sound.
-stinguo, -stinxi, -stinct-, quencle.
stringo, strinxi, strict-, bind. struo, struxi, struct-, build.
suesco, suevi, suet-, be wont.
, surgo, surrexi, surrect-, rise.
tergo, tersi, ters-, wipe.
texo, texui, text-, weave.
tollo [ToL] (sustuli, sublat-), tremo, tremui, tremble. [raise. tundo [TUD], tutudi, tuns-, beat . uro, ussi, ust-, burn.
vello, velli (vulsi), vuls-, pluck.
verro, verri, vers-, sweep.
pingo [PIG], pinxi, pict-, paint. verto, verti, vers-, turn.
pinso, pinsi, pins-(pinst-, pist-), vinco [vic], vici, vict-, conquer. bruise.
pono [POS], posui, posit-, put. vivo, vixi, vict-, live.
posco, poposci (posciturus,) de-volvo, volvi, volut-, turn. mand.
vomo, vomui, vomit-, vomit.
prehendo, di, prehens-, seize.
Those reduplicated in the perfect are - cado, cado, curro, disco, fallo, pango, parco, pello, pendo, posco, pungo, tendo, tundo.

## 34. Fourth Conjugation.

## active voice.

PASSIVE VOICE.
indicative. SUbJunctive. indicative. ' Subjunctive.

Present, I hear.
audio, I hear. audiam audis, thou hearest.audias audit, he hears. audiat audīmus, we hear. audiāmus audītis, you hear. audiātis ${ }^{\text {b }}$ audiunt, they hear. audiant

I am heard. audior audiar audiris (re) audītur audimur audimĭni audiuntur
audiäris (re) audiātur audiāmur audiamĭni audiantur

Imperfect, I heard (was hearing). I was heard.
audiēbam audiēbas audiēbat audiebāmus audiebātis audiēbant
audīrem audires audiret audirēmus audirētis audirent

Future, I shall hear. audiam, I shall hear. audies audiet : audiēmus audiētis audient

Perfect, I heard (have heard). audivi, $I$ heard. audivěrim audivisti audivĕris audivit audivĭmus audivistis audivērunt (re) audivĕrint

Pluperfect, I had heard. audivĕram, 1 had audivissem audivěras [heard. audivisses audivĕrat audiverāmus , audiverātis audivěrant

Fut. Perfect, I shall have heard. audivĕro, I shall have heard. audivěris audivĕrit audiverĭmus audiverĭtis audivĕrint
audiēbar audiebāris (re) audiebātur audiebāmur audiebamĭni audiebantur
audirer audirēris (re) audirētur audirēmur audiremĭni audirentur
1 shall be heard.
audiar
audiēris (re)
audiētur
audiēmur
audiemĭni
audientur I was (have been) heard. audītus sum audītus sim auditus es auditus est auditi sumus auditi estis auditi sunt

> I had been heard.
auditus eram auditus essem auditus eras auditus erat auditi eramus auditi eratis auditi erant
auditus sis auditus sit auditi simus auditi sitis auditi sint auditus esses auditus esset auditi essemus auditi essetis auditi essent

I shall have been heard.
auditus ero auditus eris auditus erit
auditi erĭmus
auditi eritis
auditi erunt

| Active. |  | tive. | SIVE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing. | Plur | Sing. | din |
| Pr. 2. audī, hear. | audite | audire | audimı̆ni |
| F. 2. audito | auditōte |  |  |
| 3. audito | audiunto | audītor | diun |

Pr. audīre Pr.audivisse Pr. audīri Pr. auditus esse F. audīturus esse F. audītum iri (auditus fore) PARTICIPLES.
audiens auditurus auditus audiendus

Ger. audiendum, di, \&c.
Sup. audītum, audītu

1. There are - besides a few deponents and regular derivatives in -ŭrio - about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs: viz., barrio, roar (as an elephant); crocio, croak; cūcūrio, crow; dentio, teethe; ebullio, bubble; effutio, drivel; frigutio, stutter; fritinnio, twitter; gannio, yelp; glutio, gulp; grunnio, grunt; hinnio, neigh; hirrio, snarl; ligūrio, lick; lipio, scream (as a hawk); lippio, blink; mugio, bellow; muttio, mutter; pavio, trample ; scalptūrio, scratch ; scatūrio, gush; singultio, hiccup; tinnio, tinkle; tussio, cough; vagio, cry.
2. Those not conjugated regularly, like audio, are the following :-
amicio, amixi (amicui), amict-, reperio, reperi, repert-, find.
clothe.
aperio, aperui, apert-, open. . sancio, sanxi, sanct-, sanction.
comperio, peri, compert-, find. sarcio, sarsi, sart-, patch. farcio, farsi (farct-) (-tum), stuff: sentio, sensi, sens-, feel: fulcio, fulsi, fult-, prop. sepelio, sepelivi, sepult-, bury. haurio, hausi, haust-, drain. operio, operui, opert-, cover. raucio, rausi, raus-, be hoarse. vincio, vinxi, vinct-, bind.

## 35. Deponent Verbs.

1. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive voice, with an active or reflexive signification : as,
2. mīror, mirāri, mirātus, admire.
3. věreor, verēri, verĭtus, fear.
4. sěquor, sequi, secūtus, follow.
5. pǒtior, potīir, potitus, possess.

The synopsis of these verbs is given as follows:-

| Indicative. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. | miror | vereor | sequor | potior |
| IMP. | mirābar | verēbar | sequēbar | potiēbar 1 |
| Fut. | mirabor | verēbor | sequar | potiar |
| Perf. | mirātus sum | veritus sum | secūtus sum | potitus sum |
| Plup. | " eram | " eram | , eram | ; eram |
| Fut. $P$. | " ero | ", ero | ," ero | " ero |
| Subjunctive. |  |  |  |  |
| Pres. | mirer | verear | sequar | potiar |
| IMP. | mirārer | verērer | sequĕrer | potirer |
| Perf. | miratus sim | verĭtus sim | secūtus sim | potītus sim |
| Plup. | essem | essem | " essem | " essem |
| Imperat. | mirāre, ātor | verēre, ētor | sequĕre, ǐtor | potīre, ītor |
| Infin. | mirāri | verēri | sequi | potiri |
| Part. Pr. | mirans | verens | sequens | potiens |
| Fut. | miraturus | verǐturus | secuturus | potiturus |
| Perf. | mirātus | veritus | secūtus | potitus |
| Ger. | mirandus | verendus | sequendus | potiendus |

a. These verbs have the participles of both voices: as, mirans, admiring; miraturus, about to admire; miratus, having admired ; mirandus, to-be-admired (admirable).
b. The participle in dus (gerundive) has necessarily a passive meaning, and hence is found only in transitive verbs, or of neuter verbs used impersonally ( $\$ 39, c$ ): as, potienda est tellus, the land must be won ; pugnandum est nobis, we must fight.
c. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in their meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the middle voice.
d. More than half of all deponents arevof the first conjugation, and all of these are regular.
e. About twenty verbs of active signification are found in both active and passive forms: as, mereo or mereor, deserve.
$f$. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive signification: as, criminor, I accuse or $I$ am accused.
$\boldsymbol{g}$. The perfect participle of verbs otherwise deponent is often passive: as, mercatus, bought ; adeptus, obtained.
h. The following list contains all the irregular deponents : adipiscor, i, adeptus; obtain. -miniscor, i, -mentus, think. expergiscor, i , -perrectus, rouse. metior, iri, mensus, measure. experior, iri, expertus, try. morior, i (iri), mortuus (morifateor, eri, fassus, confess. fruor, i, fructus, enjoy. fungor, i, functus, fulfil. gradior, i, gressus, step. irascor, i, iratus, be angry. labor, i, lapsus, fall. loquor, i, locutus, speak.

> nanciscor, i, nactus (nanctus), find.
nascor, i, natus, be born. nitor, i, nisus (nixus), strive. obliviscor, i, oblītus, forget. opperior, iri, oppertus, await.
ordior, iri, orsus, begin. [rise. queror, i, questus, complain. orior, i (iri), ortus (oriturus), reor, reri, ratus, think. paciscor, i, pactus, bargain. sequor, i, secutus, follow. patior, i, passus, suffer. tueor, eri, tuitus (tutus), defend. -plector, i, -plexus, clasp. ulciscor, i, ultus, avenge. proficiscor, i, profectus, set-out. utor, i, usus, use, employ.
2. Semi-Deponents. A few verbs, having no perfect stem, form the tenses of completed action like the passive: these are called semi-deponents or neuter passives. They are the following:-
audeo, audēre, ausus, dare.
fido, fidĕre, fisus, trust.
gaudeo, gaudēre, gavisus, rejoice.
soleo, solēre, solĭtus, be wont.
a. From audeo there is an old subjunctive ausim. The form sōdes (for si audes), an thou wilt, is frequent in the dramatists.
b. The active forms vapulāre, to be flogged, and venīre, to be sold (venum īre, go to sale), having a passive meaning, are sometimes called neutral passives. To these may be added fiĕri (fio), to be made, and exsulare, to be banished (live in exile).

## 36. Derivative Verbs.

Several classes of verbs have derivative meanings corresponding to their form. (For their formation, see § 44.)
a. Inceptives or Incifoatives end in -sco, and denote the beginning of an action: as, calesco, I grow warm (caleo); vesperascit, it is getting late (vesper). They are of the third conjugation, and have only the Present stem, though often completed by forms of simple verbs.
b. Intensives or Iteratives end in -to or -ĭto, and denote a forcible or repeated action: as, jactat, he hurls (jacio); dictitabat, he kept saying (dico). They are of the first conjugation.

Note. - Iteratives (or Frequentatives), though distinct in meaning from Intensives, are not always distinguished from them in form.
c. Another form of Intensives (sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice) ends in -sso, denoting a certain energy or eagerness of action: as, facessit, he makes haste to do. They are of the third conjugation, with perfect and supine of the fourth: as, lacesso, lacessīvi, lacessitum, to provoke.
d. Diminutives end in -illo, and denote a feeble or petty action: as, cantillāre, to chirp or warble (cano, sing).
e. Desideratives end in ŭrio, expressing longing or wish, and are of the fourth conjugation. Only these three are in common use, emptŭrio (emo, buy), esŭrio (ĕdo, eat), parturio (pario, bring forth). Others occur for comic effect in the dramatists.

## 37. Irregular Verbs.

[For esse and its compounds, see § 29.]
Several verbs retain older forms in the tenses of the present stem, or combine two roots in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs.

The most common verbs of this class are -

1. Volo, velle, volui, to wish (the supine stem appears in vultus, countenance).
2. Nōlo (non volo), nolle, nolui, to be unwilling.
3. Mālo (mage-volo); malle, malui, to prefer.
[For the inflection of volo, nolo, malo, see opposite page.]
4. Fĕro, ferre, tŭli, lātum, to bear.

Note. - The perfect tuli is for tetuli (which sometimes occurs), from tul in tollo; the Supine latum for tlatum (cf. $\tau \lambda \eta$ тós).

| Pres. | ACTIVE. |  | PASsive. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | indic. | SUBJ. | indic. | subj. |
|  | fero | feram | feror | ferar |
|  | fers | feras | ferris | feraris (re) |
|  | fert | ferat | fertur, | feratur |
|  | ferimus | feramus | ferĭmur | feramur |
|  | fertis | feratis | ferimini | feramini |
|  | ferunt | ferant | feruntur | ferantur |
| Imp. | ferēbam | ferrem | ferēbar | ferrer |
| Fut. | feram |  | ferar |  |
| Perf. | tŭlí | tulerim | latus sum | latus sim |
| Plup. | tuleram | tulissem | latus eram | latus essem |
| F. Perf. | tulero |  | latus ero |  |
|  |  | IMP | rive. |  |
| Pres. | Sing. <br> fer | Plur. ferte | Sing. ferre | Plur. ferimini |
| Fut. | ferto | fertote |  |  |
|  | ferto | ferunto | fertor | feruntor |
|  |  | infi | Ive. |  |
|  | Pres. ferre | Perf. tulisse | Pres. ferri | Perf. <br> latus esse |
|  |  | part | Les. |  |
|  | Pres. ferens | Fut. <br> laturus | Perf. latus | Ger. <br> ferendus |

## Inflection of volo and its Compounds.

VOLO, will. NOLO, will not. MALO, prefer.
INDIC. SUBJ. INDIC. SUBJ. - INDIC. SUBJ.
Present.

| volo, | velim | nolo | nolim | malo | malim |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| vis | velis | nonvis | nolis | mavis | malis |
| vult | velit | nonvult | nolit | mavult | malit |
| vol'umus | veli'mus | nol'umus | noli'mus | mal'umus | mali'mus |
| vultis | velitis | nonvultis | nolitis | mavultis | malitis |
| volunt | velint | nolunt | nolint | malunt | malint |

Imperfect.

| volebam | vellem | nolebam | nollem | malebam | mallem |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| volebas | velles | nolebas | nolles | malebas | malles |
| volebat | vellet | nolebat | nollet | malebat | mallet |
| volebamus | vellemus | nolebamus | nollemus | malebamus mallemus |  |
| volebatis | velletis | nolebatis | nolletis | malebatis | malletis |
| volebant | vellent | nolebant. | nollent | malebant | mallent | Future.


| volam |  | nolam $\dagger$ |  | malam $\dagger$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| voles |  | noles |  | males |  |
| volet |  | nolet |  | malet |  |
| volemus |  | nolemus |  | malemus |  |
| voletis |  | noletis |  | maletis |  |
| volent |  | nolent |  | malent |  |
| Perfect. - |  |  |  |  |  |
| volui | -erim | nolui | -erim | malui | -erim |
| voluisti | -eris | noluisti | -eris | maluisti | -eris |
| voluit | -erit | noluit | -erit | maluit | -erit |
| voluimus | -erimus | noluimus | -erimus | maluimus | -erimus |
| voluistis | -eritis | noluistis | -eritis | maluistis | -eritis |
| voluerunt | -erint | noluerunt | -erint | maluerunt | -erint |
| Pluperfect. |  |  |  |  |  |
| volueram | -issem | nolueram | -issem | malueram | -issem |
| volueras | -isses | nolueras | -isses | malueras | -isses |
| voluerat | -isset | noluerat | -isset | maluerat | -isset |
| volueramus | -issemus | nolueramus | -issemus | malueramus | -issemus |
| volueratis | -issetis | nolueratis | -issetis | malueratis | -issetis |
| voluerant | -issent | noluerant | -issent | maluerant | -issent |
| Euture Perfect. |  |  |  |  |  |
| voluero |  | noluero |  | maluero |  |
| volueris |  | nolueris |  | malueris |  |
| voluerit |  | noluerit |  | maluerit |  |
| voluerimus |  | noluerimus | - | maluerimus |  |
| volueritis |  | nolueritis |  | malueritis |  |
| voluerint |  | noluerint |  | maluerint |  |

IMPERATIVE.
Pr. noli, noli'te, do not.
FUT. noli'to, nolito'te, thou shalt not, ye shall not. noli'to, nolunto, he shall not, they shall not.

INFINITIVE.

5. Edo, to eat (regular of third conjugation), has also some forms directly from the root without a characteristic vowel : viz.,

Ind. Pres. ès, est, estis ; Subj. Pres. edim, Imperf. essem ; Imperat. ès, esto, este; Infin. esse; Passive, estur, essētur; and, in compounds, comes, comest, comestum, comēsum; exest, exesset, exesse.
6. Eo, īre, ivi, ǐtum, to go (root $\mathfrak{1}$, cf. $\varepsilon i \mu l$; the e stands for ei produced by vowel-increase from i). The forms of eo are found in veneo, to be sold (venum eo, go to sale).

INDICATIVE.
Pres. S. eo, is, it
P. imus, itis, eunt

Imp. ibam, ibas, ibat ibamus, ibatis, ibant
Fut. ibo, ibis, ibit ibĭmus, ibřtis, ibunt
Perf. ivi (ii)
Plup. iveram (ieram)
Fut. P. ivero
Imperat. i, ite; itote, eunto
Infin. Pr. ire
Part. P. iens, euntis

SUBJUNCTIVE. eam, eas, eat eamus, eatis, eant irem, ires, iret iremus, iretis, irent
iverim (ierim)
ivissem (issem)
7. Făcio, facĕre, fēci, factum, to make, - regular, with the peculiar forms fut. perf. faxo, perf. subj. faxim, imperat. fac. It has for its passive
fio, fiĕri, factus sum, to hemade, or become, of which the tenses of the first stem are regular of the fourth conjugation, but with subj. imperf. fiĕrem.

INDICATIVE.
Pres. S. fio, fis, fit
P. fimus, fitis, fiunt

Imp. fiebam
Fut. fiam, fies, \&c.
Perf. factus sum
Plup. factus eram
Fut. P. factus ero
Imperat. fi, fite; fito, fitote, fiunto
Infin. Pres. fiĕri
Part. Perf. factus

SUBJUNCTIVE.
fiam, fias, fiat
fiamus, fiatis, fiant
fiĕrem
factus $\operatorname{sim}$
factus essem

Most compounds of facio with prepositions change ă to $\check{\mathbf{I}}$ or $\mathbf{e}$, and form the passive and imperative regularly : as, conficio, conficcĕre, confēci, confectum, to finish. Other compounds retain a, and have -fio in the passive: as,
bĕnĕ-facio (-fă'cis), -fēci, -factum; pass. benefio, to benefit. A few isolated forms of -fio occur with prepositions (see § 38, $h$ ).

## 38. Defective Verbs.

1. Some verbs have lost their Present stem, and use only tenses of the Perfect (sometimes with the meaning of the present), in which they are inflected regularly.
a. Coepi (root co-AP as in apiscor), I began. Infin. coepisse; Fut. Part. coepturus. A passive participle coeptus is used with the passive infinitive. For the Present, incipio is used.
b. Odi, I hate (root odd- in odium) ; with the participles ōsus, hating or hated (perōsus, utterly hateful), osurus, likely to hate.
c. Memĭni, I remember (root men, as in mens, remĭniscor), with the imperative memento and mementote.

Note.-Odi and memini, having a Perfect form with a present meaning, are called preteritive verbs.
2. Many verbs have only the Present stem, and in many the simple verb is incomplete, but the parts appear in the compounds. Some occur very commonly, but only in a few forms: as,
a. Aio (root AGH found in adagium and in nego, which has passed into the first conjugation):

Ind. Pres. Sing. aio, I say. ais ait aiunt
Imperf. aiēbam (aibam); aiebas, \&c.
Subj. Pres. aias, aiat, aiant.
Imperat. ai. - Part. aiens.
b. Inquam, say (used only in quotations, as the English quoth, which is from the same root):

Ind. Pres. Sing. inquam inquis inquit

Plur. inquǐmus inquĭtis inqueunt

Imperf. inquībat. - Fut. inquiet. - Perf. inquisti.
Imperat. inque, inquĭto.
c. Fari, to speak, forms the periphrastic tenses regularly: as, fatus sum, eram, \&c. It has also

Ind. Pres. fatur, fantur. - Fut. fabor, fabĭtur.
Imperat. fare. - Infin. fari. - Part. fanti (with the compound infans, as noun).
Gerund. fandus, to be spokien of (with the compounds infandus, nefandus, abominable). - Supine, fatu.
The compounds affamur, affabimur, præfamini, \&c., occur.
d. Quaeso, I ask, beg (an original form of quaero), has quaeso, quaesŭmus, quaesere, quaesens.
e. Ovare, to triumph, has the following:
ovat, ovet, ovāret; ovans, ovandi, ovatus, ovaturus.
$f$. A few are found chiefly in the Imperative: as, salve, salvete, hail! also salvēre (from salvus).
ăve (or hăve), avēte, avēto, hail, or farewell.
cĕdo, cedĭte (cette), give, tell.
apăge! begone! (properly a Greek word).
g. Queo, I can, nequeo, I cannot, are conjugated like eo. They are rarely used except in the Present.
Ind. Pres. queo, quis, quit, quimus, quitis, queunt.
Imp. quībam, quībat, quibant. - Fut. quibo, quibunt.
Perf. quivi, quivit, quiverunt.
Subj. Pres. queam, \&c. - Imp. quirem, quiret, quirent.
Perf. quiverit. - Plup. quissent.
Infin. quire, quivisse (quisse). - Part. quiens, queuntis.
Ind. Pres. nequeo (often non queo), nonquis, nequit, nequīmus, nequïtis, nequeunt.
Imp. nequībam, -ibat, -ibant. - Fut. nequībunt.
Perf. nequivi, nequivisti, nequivit, nequiverunt.
Subj. Pres. nequeam, \&c. - Imp. nequirem.
Perf. nequiverim. - Plup. nequisset.
Infin. nequire, nequivisse. - Part. nequiens.
h. The following compounds of fio have only the forms confit, it comes to pass; defit, it lacks; infit, he begins (to speak).
39. Impersonal Verbs.

Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the third person singular, with the infinitive and gerund. These are called Impersonal Verbs.

Note. - With impersonal verbs the word it is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though id, hoc, illud, are often used nearly in the same way.

Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows :-
a. Verbs expressing the operations of nature: as, pluit, it rains; ningit, it snows; grandrnat, it luails; fulgurat, it lightens.

In these, no subject is distinctly thought of; though sometimes the name of a deity is expressed; and, in poetic use, of other agents also: as, fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones.
b. Verbs of feeling, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as if himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb. Such are, miseret, it grieves; poenĭtet, it repents ; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it shames; taedet, it wearies:- as, miseret me, I pity (it distresses me).

Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, misereor, I pity (am moved by pity); and occasionally other parts: as, libens, licens, poeniturus, poenitendus, pudendus.
c. By a similar construction, the passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally: as, pugnatur, there is fighting; dicitur, it is said; parcĭtur mihi, I am spared.

Note. - This use of the passive proceeds from its original reflexive meaning, the action being regarded as accomplishing itself (compare the French cela se fuit).
d. Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject: as, libet, it pleases; licet, it is permitted; certum est, it is resolved; constat, it is clear; placet, videtur, it seems good; decet, it is becoming; delectat, juvat, it delights; oportet, necesse est, it is neerlful; praestat, it is better; interest, refert, it concerns; vacat, there is leisure; with verbs of happening and the. like. Many of these are also used personally.

## 40. Periphrastic Forms.

When the tenses of esse are used with a Participle, this use is called periphrastic conjugation. It is most frequent-
a. With the participle in urus, to express intention, or simple futurity; this is sometimes necessary in the subjunctive: as, cum venturus sit, since he is about to come. This form is sometimes called the first periphrastic conjugation; and, when used with sim, the future subjunctive.
b. With the gerundive to denote duty or propriety: as, vera dicenda sunt, the truth must be told. This form is sometimes called the second periphrastic conjugation.
c. With the perfect participle, in the regular inflection of the tenses of completed action in passives and deponents.

Note. - The participle in tus frequently, and that in ns regularly, is used with esse simply as an adjective: as, sapiens est, he is wise; acceptus est, he is welcome.

## PARTICLES.

## 41. Adverbs.

What are called Particles - that is, all Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions - are real or extinct case-forms, or else compounds and phrases.

In classification Particles cannot always be distinguished; many prepositions and conjunctions being also reckoned among adverbs.

1. Derivation. The regular adverbs of manner are formed from Adjectives.
[For the comparison of these adverbs, see § 17, 4.]
a. Adjectives of the first and second declensions change the characteristic vowel of the stem into $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ (originally an ablative in d) : as, from carus, dear, carē, dearly.

So abunde, sape, prope, from adjectives not in use; as also prod (pro), re- (red-), se-, (sed-).
b. Adjectives of the third declension add -ter to the stem (most being treated as i-stems): as, fortiter, bravely; vigilanter, watchfully.

Note. - This suffix is of uncertain origin, probably the same as in the Greek - $\tau$ gpos, and in alter, uter; and, if so, these are neuter accusatives.
c. Some adverbs of the former class have both forms: as, dure, duř̌ter; misere, miseriter. (So alǐter from alius old stem ali-.)
d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb (strictly a cognate accusative, see § 52, $1, d$ ): as, multum, much; actutum, at once; facile, easily; non (=ne unum), not; iterum (comparative of is), again.
e. The ablative neuter or (less commonly) feminine is used adverbially: as, falso, falsely; cito, quickly; rectā (viā), straight (straightway) ; contrā, on the other hand; quā (parte), where; quī, how; alioqui, otherwise.
f. A few adverbs are datives of adjectives and pronouns : as, quo, whither; adeo, so; ultra, beyond; citro, this side ; retro, back (compar. of uls, cis, re); illoc (illo-ce, weakened to illuc), thither.
g. Some locative forms are used as adverbs: as, ibi, there; ubi, where, \&c. ; peregre, abroad; hic, here; interim, meanwhile; deinde, then; tamen, yet; and the compounds extrinsecus, outside ; perendie, day after to-morrow.
h. Several feminine accusatives are used as adverbs: as, statim, on the spot; saltim, with a leap (generally in the form saltem, at least) ; palam, openly; perpěram, wholly otherwise (i.e., changed for the worse); tam, quam, nam (which may be neuters).
i. Several plural accusatives, neuter and feminine, are used adverbially, as frustra, vainly; alias, otherwise; foras, out of doors.
7. Some adverbs are of uncertain formation: (1) those in -tus (usually preceded by i) : as, penitus, funditus, from the bottom (utterly) ; divinitus, providentially, - which are ablative in meaning; (2) those in -dem, -dam, -do (in quan-do, when; do-nec, until), dum, perhaps jam (from the same root with dies, diu, \&c.).
l. Many phrases or clauses have grown into adverbs: as, antea, before; postmŏdo, a litlle after; denuo (de nŏvo), again; prorsus, utterly; quotannis, every year ; quamobrem, wherefore; obviam, in the way; pridem, before the day (i.e., before this time); forsan, a chance whether ; forsitan (fors sit an), perhaps; scilĭcet (scire licet), to be sure.
(For Numeral Adverbs, see § 18, 3.)
2. Classification. Adverbs, other than those directly formed from adjectives, are classified as follows:-

## a. Adverbs of Place.

ubi, where. hic, here. ibi, there. istic illic alicubi, somewhere; ibidem, in the same place; alibi, elsewhere; ubiubi, wherever; ubivis, anywhere; sicubi, if anywhere; necubi, lest anywhere ; istuc ", illuc ", ;
, ace:
quo, whither. unde, whence. huc, hither. hinc, hence. eo, thither. inde, thence.
aliquo eodem alio quoquo quovis siquo nequo
quâ, by what way. hac, by this way. eâ, by the way. istâ illâ (illac) , alicunde aliquâ. indidem eâdem. aliunde aliâ. undecunque quâquâ. undique sicunde necunde nequâ.
nusquam, nowhere; ultro, beyond (or freely); citro, to this side; intro, intwardly; porro, further on.
quorsum (quo versum), to what end? horsum, this way; prorsum, forward (prorsus, utterly); introrsum, inwardly; retrorsum, backward; sursum, upward; deorsum, downward; seorsum, apart; aliorsum, another way.

## b. Adverbs of Time.

quando? when? cum (quom, quum), when (relat.).
nunc, now; tunc (tum), then; mox, presently.
primum (primo), first; deinde (postea), next after; postremum, (postremo), finally.
umquam (unquam), ever; numquam, never; semper, always. aliquando, some time, at length; quandoque (quandocumque), whenever.
quotiens (quoties), how often; totiens, aliquotiens.
quotidie, every day; in dies, from day to day.
nondum, not yet; necdum, nor yet; vixdum, scarce yet; quam primum, as soon as possible.

## c. Adverbs of Degree or Cause.

quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much. cur, quare, why; quod, quia, because; eo, therefore. ita, sic, so ; ut (uti), as, how; utut, utcumque, however. quamquam (quanquam), although; etiam, quoque, even, also.

## d. Interrogative Particles.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, num, whether.
nonne, whether not; numquid, ecquid, whether at all; (ecquid intellegis? have you any idea?)
utrum (num), -ne, whether; ... an (annon, neene), or.

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, an,-ne ,,
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Note. - The word whether is not now used in English, except in Indirect Questions (See § 71).

## e. Negative Particles.

non, not in simple denial; haud (hau, haut), or minime, not in contradiction; ne, not in prohibition.
ne, lest; neque, nec, nor; ne ... quidem, not even.
non modo... verum (sed) etiam, not only . . . but also.
non modo . . . sed ne . . . quidem, not only not . . . but not even.
si minus, if not; quo minus, so as not.
quin (relat.), but that ; (interrog.) why not? who (what) not? ne (in compos.), not: as, nescio, $I$ know not; nego (ne-aio), I say no (aio, I say yes); nēmo (ne hŏmo), no one; ne quis, lest any one.

Remari. - Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: as, nemo non audiet, every one will hear.

This is especially frequent with compounds of non: as, nonnullus (= aliquis), some; nonnihil (= aliquid), something; nonnemo (= aliquot), sundry persons; nonnumquam (=aliquotiens), sometimes; necnon, also.

On the other hand, nemo non, nulli non, every one; nihil non, every thing; numquam non, always, \&c.
3. Signification. The following adverbs require special explanation: -
a. Etiam, also, is stronger than quorque, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it: as, terret etiam nos, ac minatur (Rosc. Am. 40), us also he terrifies and threatens.
hoc quoque maleficium (id.), this crime too.
b. Nunc, now, means definitely the present time ; jam, already, - or, with the future, presently; with negatives, no longer, - has reference to the past. Tunc, then, is a strengthened form of tum, which is correlative with cum, when: as,
nunc jam confiteris, now at length you confess.
non est jam lenitati locus, there is no longer room for mercy. quod jam erat institutum, which had come to be a practice. nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florebat (Læl. 4), now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory. tum cum regnabat, at the time he reigned.
c. Certō means certainly; certe (usually), at any rate: as, certo scio, I know for a certainty. aut jam urgentis aut certe adventantis senectutis (C. M. I.), of old age, which is already pressing or at least approaching.
d. Primum, first (first in order, or for the first time), is usually followed by deinde, tum, . . . denĭque ; primo, at first, by posteā (post) or mox, afterwards. (The adjective form is preferred in such phrases as nos primi, we first, \&c.) Thus,
primum de genere belli, deinde de magnitudine, tum de imperatore deligendo (Manil. 2), first of the kind of war, next of its greatness, then of the choice of commander.
e. Quidem, indeed, is emphatic, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, \&c. (see above nunc quidem, \&c.). With ne .. . quidem, not even or not either, the emphatic word must stand between: as,
senex ne quod speret quidem habet (C. M. 19), an old man has Not even any thing to hope for. ne Jugurtha quidem quietus erat (Jug. 51), Nor was Fugurtha quiet EITHER.

## 42. Prepositions.

1. Prepositions are not originally distinguished from adverbs in form or meaning. They are, however, distinguished in their use, requiring to be followed by some special case of a noun or pronoun.
a. The following Prepositions require the accusative:-
ad, to.
adversus, or adversum, towards. ante, before. apud, at, near. circā, or circum, around. circǐter, about. cis, citrā, this side. contrā, against.
ergā, towards. extrā, outside. infrā, below. inter, among. intrā, inside. juxtā, near. ǒb, on account of. penes, in the power.
per, through.
pōne, behind.
post, after. praeter, beyond. prope, near. propter, on account of. secundum, next to. suprā, above.
trans, across. ultrā, on the further side.
versus, towards.
2. The following require the ablative: -
$\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{ar} \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{abs}$, from, $b y$. absque, but for, without.
cōram, in presence of.
cum, with.
dē, from.
$\overline{\mathbf{e}}, \mathrm{ex}$, out of.
prae, in comparison with.
pro, in front of, for
sine, withoul.
tenus, up to, or as far as.
c. The following may take either case, but usually with a difference in meaning:-
in, into, in; sub, under; subter, beneath; super, above.
In and sub, when followed by the Accusative, signify motion to, when by the Ablative, rest in, a place.
(For the Syntax of Prepositions, see § 56.)
3. The meaning and use of these prepositions may be seen in the following examples, which include many adverbial phrases:-
$\mathbf{A , ~ a b , ~ a w v a y ~ f r o m ~ ( o p p o s i t e ~ o f ~ a d ) : ~ a b ~ e o ~ l o c o , ~ f r o m ~ t h a t ~}$ place; a nobis, from our house; prope ab urbe, near (not far from) the city; secundus a rege, next the king; liberare ab, to set free from; occisus ab hoste (periit ab hoste), slain by an enemy; a fronte, in front; ab hac parte, on this side; a primo, at first; ab re, afterwards; dolet ab animo, he grieves at heart; ab initio ordiri, to begin at the beginning; stat ab amicis, he stands by his friends; ab hac contione, after this speech; ab re
ejus, to his advantage; servus a manu, an amanuensis; a pedibus, a footman.

Note. - ab signifies direction from the object, but towards the speaker; compare de and ex.

Absque, without:-absque argumento, without argument; absque paucis, except a few; absque me, but for me.

Ad, to, towards, at (place or time): - eo ad patrem, I go to my father; ad pedes ejus, at his feet; ad flumen, near the river; ad ripas, on the banks; ad meridiem, towards the south; ad vesperum, near evening; ad tempus, at the (fit) time; adiit ad rempublicam, he went into public life; ad manus, to blows; ad petendam pacem, to seek peace; ad communem salutem, for the common safety; nihil ad Cæsarem, nothing in comparison with Casar; ad hunc modum, in this zvay; quem ad modum, how, as ; ad nuptias, for the wedding; ad auxilium, for aid; ad hos casus, for these emergencies; ad centum, near a hundred; ad primum nuntium, at the first message; ad hoc, besides; ad speciem, in respect to form; ad praesens, for the moment; ad verbum, word for word; ad summum, in short, at most; ad ultimum, wholly, finally; ad unum, to a man.

Adversus (-sum), opposite, towards, against: - adversus montem, over against the mountain; te adversum, to your face; advêrsus eum, in comparison with him; adversus ea, in reply to this; adversus deos, towards the gods.

Ante, in front, before (place or time): - ante oculos, before his eyes; ante urbem captam, before the city was taken; ante diem quintum (A.D.v.). Kal, the fifth day before the Calends (third day before the end of the month); ante quadriennium, four years before or ago; ante alios carissimus, dearest of all; ante tempus, too soon; ante omnia, first of all; ante Ciceronem, before Cicero's time.

Apud, at or by (rarely of places) : - apud forum, in the forum; apud populum, before the people; apud exercitum, with the army; apud aliquem, at one's house; apud se, at home, or in his senses; apud Ciceronem, in Cicero (in his works); apud antiquos, among the ancients.

Circum (acc.), circa (abl.), circiter (stem as in circus, circle), about, around: - circum axem vertitur, it turns about the axle; circum haec loca, hereabout; circa se habent, they have with them; (of time or number, circa or circiter, not circum) :- circa eandem horam, about the same hour; circiter passus mille, about a mile ; circa bonas artes (late), in reference to good arts; loca haec circiter, hereabout.

Cis, citra (abl. of comparative, compare Greek -тєpos), this side of (both motion towards and rest in ; opposite to ultra) : cis Padum, this side the Po; citra flumen, this side the river; citra rustici operam, within the labor of a farmer; citra usum, without regard to use; citra satietatem, not to fulness; paucos cis dies, within a few days.

Contra (abl. comp of cum), opposite, against: - contra Italiam, over against Italy; contra hostem, against the enemy; contra munera, as a set-off to the gifts; haec contra, this in reply; contra autem, but on the other hand, adv.; quod contra, whereas on the other hand, adv.; non pro me sed contra me, not for but against me ; contra fas, contrary to right.

Coram, in presence of (only of persons):- coram judicibus, before the judges; Germanico coram (Tac.), usually an adverb.

Cum, with (together in place or time):-cum fratre, with his brother; abi cum donis, away with your gifts; cum malo suo, to his own hurt; cum labore, with toil; cum dis volentibus, with favor of the gods; cum decimo, tenfold; confligere cum hoste, to fight with the enemy; cum armis, in arms; cum imperio, in power; cum pallio, in a cloak; esse cum telo, to go armed; cum silentio, in silence.

De, from, away, down from: - de domo, out of the house; de sella, down from his seat; unus de plebe, one of the people (the whole, from which a part is taken); emi domum de Crasso, 1 bought a house of Crassus (also ab); de tuo (de te), out of your property; qua de re, concerning which thing; qua de causa, for which reason; de summo genere, of high birth; de improviso, of a sudden; de industria, on purpose; de integro, anew; de nocte, at night; de tertia vigilia, just at midnight (starting at the third watch) ; de mense Dec. navigare, to sail in December; de amicorum sententia, in accordance with the views of friends; triumphare de, to triumph over; de schola, of that sect.

Erga, towards (usually of persons): - erga aedes, opposite the house; benevolentia erga nos, kindness towards us; malus erga me, spiteful towards me (but more generally used of a favorable inclination).

Ex, e, from (the midst, opposed to in), out of : - ex urbe, from the city; ex hoc die, from this day forth; statua ex aere, a statue of brass; ex fuga, during flight; ex consulatu. right after his consulship; ex aere alieno, by reason of debt; ex ejus sententia, after his opinion; ex aequo, justly; ex improviso, unexpectedly; ex tua re, to your advantage; ex voluntate ejus, by his good will; magna ex parte, in a great degree; ex pede Herculem, to know one by a slight token; felix ex misero, bettering one's condition; ex Metello consule, beginning with Metellus's consulship; ex pedibus laborare, to be lame in the feet; ex equo pugnare, to fight on horseback.

Extra, outside of (opposed to intra): - extra provinciam, beyond the province; extra causam, beside the case; extra te unum, except you alone (not used of time).

In, into (acc. opp. to ex), in (abl. of time or place): - in urbem ire, to go to town; in mentem venit, it comes to mind; amor in (erga or adversus) patrem, love for. his father'; in aram confugit, he fled to the altar (on the steps or merely to); in diem, to the set day; in dies, from day to day; vi. pedes in longitudinem, six feet long; in vi. partes fractus, broken in six parts;
in hæc verba jurare, to swear to these words; in alicujus verba jurare, to take an oath of allegiance to one; in silvam deponere, to (carry and) place in the wood; hunc in modum, in this way; oratio in Catilinam, a speech against Catiline; in universum (in planum), on the whole; in totum, wholly; in reliquum, for the rest; in perpetuum, for ever; in majus, too much; in pejus, for the worse; in quantum, so far as; in magnam partem, in great part; in utramque partem, on either side; nos in diem vivimus (Tusc. v. II), we live from hand to mouth; -in urbe esse, to be in the city; in tempore, in season; in scribendo, while writing; est mihi in animo, I have it in mind; in collo, on the neck; in arbore, up the tree; in ancoris (Cæs.), at anchor; in altera parte, on the other side; in sapientibus, among the wise; in hoc homine, in the case of this man; in bonis artibus (Sall.), in good behavior.

Infra, below: - infra caelum, under the sky; infra nos, beneath $u s$; infra Homerum, later than Homer; infra iii. pedes, less than three feet.

Inter, between (of two limits): - inter flumen et montem, between the river and hill (so of time); inter noctem, in the course of the night; inter bibendum, while drinking; interest inter, there is a difference between; inter se amant, they love each other; inter se loquuntur, they talk together; inter nos, between ourselves; inter ceteram planitiem, in a district elsewhere level.

Intra, within (surrounded on all sides):-intra parietes, inside the house; (of time), intra v. dies, within five days; intra legem, inside the law.

Juxta, hard by (superl. from jungo) : - juxta murum, close to the wall; juxta se, alike with himself; juxta deos, next the gods; juxta vicinitatem (Liv.), by reason of nearness; juxta quam, nearly as; juxta ac si, about as if.

Ob, towards (in place) : - ob Romam (early), towards Rome; ob oculos, before the eyes; ob eam causam, for that reason; ob rem, to the purpose; ob hoc, therefore; quam ob rem, wherefore.

Penes, with, in possession of (same root as penitus): - est penes me, he is with me (at my house); non est penes me, it is not in my power.

Per, through (in any direction) :-per urbem ire, to go through the city; licet per me, you may for all me; juro per leges, I swear by the laws; per literas, by letter; per jocum, in jest; per longum tempus, for a long time; per somnum, during sleep.

Pone, behind (only in space):-pone tergum, behind the back.
Post, after (space or time):-post iii. dies, after three days; post tergum, behind the back; post me, after me (in time).

Prae, in front: - prae se ferre, to carry before him (exhibit or make known): : prae gaudio conticuit, he was silent for joy (used only of an objection or hindrance); prae fratre egens est, he is poor compared to his brother.

Praeter, by on the outside:- praeter spem, beyond hope; praeter hoc, besides this; praeter oculos, before the eyes; nil praeter saxa, nothing but stones.

Pro, in front (facing the same way): - pro populo, in presence of the people; pro lege, in defence of the law; argentum pro vino, money for wine; pro hac vice, for this once; pro consule, in place of consul; pro viribus, considering his strength.

Prope, near : - prope (propius, proxime) urbem, or ab urbe, near the city; prope lucem, towards daybreak.

Propter, near: - propter te sedet, he sits next you ; propter quos vivit (Mil. 22), through whose means he lives; propter metum, through fear; propter frigora (Cæs.), by reason of cold.

Secundum, just behind, following along (part. of sequor): ite secundum me (Plaut.), go behind me; secundum litus, near the shore; secundum flumen, along the stream; secundum ludos, after the games; secundum naturam, according to nature ; secundum causam nostram, to the advantage of our cause.

Sine, apart from:-urbs sine regibus, a city without kings; non sine lacrimis, with tears; sine sanguine, bloodless.

Sub, under: - sub jugum mittere, to send under the yoke; sub montem succedere, to come close to the hill; sub noctem, towards night; sub lucem, near daylight; sub hæc dicta, at these words; - sub terra, underground; sub Jove, in the open air; sub monte, at the foot of a hill; sub castris, near the camp; sub terra eximere (Plaut.), to take from under ground; sub profectione (Cæs.), during the march; sub eodem tempore, about that time; sub oculis domini, under the master's eye; sub regno, under royal power; sub lege, liable to the law.

Subter (rarely with abl.), beneath: - subter fastigia tecti, under the house-roof; subter præcordia, close to the heart; subter murum, beneath the wall; subter se, below itself; subter testudine, under the shed (of shields).

Super, above, over: - super tumulum, on the hillock; super ipsum, above him (at table); super Indos, beyond the Hindoos; super cenam loqui, to talk during supper; super morbum fames etiam, besides sickness famine also; super omnes, above all; - super cervice (Hor.), over his head; super arbore sidunt, they perch on a tree; nocte super media (Vir.), about midnight; super tali re, about such an affair; satis superque, more than enough.

Supra, on the top: - supra terram, above ground; supra caput (Sall.), imminent; supra Alexandriam, beyond Alexandria; supra hanc memoriam, before our remembrance; supra mille, above a thousand; supra morem, more than usual; supra quod, besides.

Tenus, as far as:- capulo tenus, up to the hilt; verbo (nomine) tenus, in name, nominally; aurium tenus, as far as the ears (only); labrorum tenus, along the lips.

Trans, beyond: - trans mare, over sea; trans flumen, beyond the river (rest or motion).

Ultra, on the further side: - ultra eum, beyond him; portas ultra, beyond the gates; ultra pueritiam, later than childhood; ultra eum numerum, more than that number; ultra fidem, incredible ; ultra modum, immoderate.

Versus, turned to (Eng.-ward): - Italiam versus, towards Italy (usually with another prep.) ; modo ad urbem modo in Galliam versus (Sall.), now towards the city, now towards Gaul.
3. Prepositions are frequently compounded with verbs, retaining their original meaning as Adverbs: as,
$\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a b}$, away (aufero, bear off); ad, towards (affero, bring); ante, before; circum, around (urbem circumire = ire circum urbem); con (cum), together; de, down; di or dis (insep.), apart; ex, out, completely; in, in, on, against; inter, between, into, to pieces; ob, towards, in the way of; per, through, thoroughly; re, red (insep.), back, again; se, sed (insep.), apart; sub, under, near; super, over, in place of. (For the assimilation of the final consonant, see page 4.)

## 43. Conjunctions.

1. Classification. Conjunctions are more numerous, and their use is much more accurately distinguished, in Latin than in English. They are divided into two classes, viz. : -
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Co-ordinate:-these include Copulative (and), Disjunctive (or), Adversative (but), Causal (for), Illative (thereFORE).
b. Subordinate:- these are Conditional (IF), -including Comparative (as If), Conceśsive (though, even If), - Temporal (when), Causal (because, since), Consecutive (so that), Final (in order that).
2. The following list includes most of the conjunctions and conjunctive phrases in common use.

Note. - Some of these have been included in the classification of Adverbs, and a list of Interjections has been added. See also list of Correlatives, page 49.

## a. Copulative and Disjunctive.

et, -que, atque (ac), and.
etiam, quoque, neque non (necnon), quinetiam, itidem (item), also.
cum . . . tum ; tum . . . tum, both . . . and; not only . . . but also. quâ . . . quấ, on one hand, on the other hand.
modo . . . modo, now . . . now.
aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel (-ve), either . . . or.
sive (seu) ... sive, whether . . . or.
et . . . et ; et . . . -que (atque) ; -que... et; -que....-que (poet.), both . . . and.
nec (neque) . . . nec (neque); neque . . . nec; nec ... neque (rare), neither . . . nor.
et . . . neque, both . . . and not.
nec (neque) . . . -que, neither . . . and.

## b. Adversative.

sed, autem, verum, vero, at, atqui, but.
tamen, attamen, sed tamen, verumtamen, but yet, nevertheless. nihilominus, none the less.
at vero, enimvero, but (for) in truth. ceterum, on the other hand, but.

## c. Causal.

nam, namque, enim, etenim, for quia, quod, because.
quoniam, quippe, cum (quom), quando, quandoquidem, siquidem, utpote, since, inasmuch as.

## d. Illative.

ergo, igitur, itaque, ideo, idcirco, proinde, therefore.
propterea (... quod), for this reason (. . . that).
quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, wherefore, whence.

## e. Comparative.

ut, uti, sicut, velut, prout, praeut, ceu, as, like as tamquam (tanquam), quasi, utsi, acsi, as if. quam, atque (ac), as, than.

## f. Conditional.

si, if; $\sin$, but if; nisi (ni), unless, if not; quod si, but if. modo, dum, dummodo, si modo, if only, provided. dummodo ne (dum ne, modo ne), provided only not.

## g. Concessive.

etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, tamenetsi, quamquam, although. quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, however much. licet, ut, cum (quom), though.

Note. - A concessive is often followed by an adversative: as, tamenetsi . . . tamen nihilominus, though . . . yet none the less.

## h. Temporal.

cum (quom), cum primum, ubi, ut, ut primum, postquam, when. prius ... quam, ante . . . quam, before (non ante . . . quam, not

$$
\therefore \text {. until). }
$$

quando, simulatque (simul ac), simul, as soon as.
dum, usque dum, donec, quoad, until.

## i. Final.

ut (uti), quo, in order that.
ne, ut ne, lest (in order that not); neve (neu), nor.
quin (after negatives), quominus, but that (so as to prevent).

## 1. Interjections.

O, en, ecce, ehem, papae, vah (of astonishment).
io, evae, evoe (of joy).
heu, eheu, vae, alas! (of sorrow).
heus, eho, ehodum, ho! (of calling). eia, euge (of praise).
proh (of attestation): as, proh pudor, shame!
3. Special Meaning. The following list includes most of the conjunctions whose meaning or use requires special notice : -
a. $\mathbf{E t}$, and, connects independent words or clauses; -que (enclitic) combines closely into one connected whole; atque (sometimes ac before consonants) adds with emphasis. In the second member, and not is expressed by neque or nec.

Atque (ac), as, is also used after words of comparison and likeness, as idem, the same, simul, as soon, aliter, otherwise.
b. Sed and vērum or vero (more forcible), but, are used to contradict what precedes, - always after negatives; at, yet, introtroduces with emphasis a new point, especially in argument (at enim almost always) alluding to a supposed statement on the other side; autem is used in the same way, especially in transitions, but with less force.
c. Aut, or, excludes the alternative ; vel (-ve) gives a choice ; sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions, but is also used with single words, - especially two names for the same thing. (But of aut and vel the use is not always clearly distinguished.)
d. Nam (namque), for, introduces a sufficient reason; ĕnim, an explanatory circumstance; etenim (for, you see; for, you know), something self-evident, or needing no proof.
e. Ergo, therefore, is used of things proved logically; ităque, in proofs from the nature of things; igirtur, then (a weak ergo), in passing from one stage of the argument to another, often merely to resume; idcirco, for this reason, to call attention to a special point.
f. Quia, because, regularly introduces a fact; quod, either a fact or a statement or allegation; quoniam, since, has reference to motives.
I. Quom (cum), when, is always a relative conjunction, often a correlative with tum; quando is also used as interrogative or indefinite (quando? when? si quando, if ever).
h. Et . . . et, means simply both . . . and; cum (less frequently tum) . . . tum has also the meaning not only . . . but also, emphasizing the second member.
i. Autem, enim, vero, always follow one or two words in their clause; the same is generally true of igitur, and often of tamen.
7. Conjunctions are often doubled, for the sake of emphasis, or to bind a sentence more closely to the preceding : as, at vero, itaque ergo (namque, etenim). The same is true of Relatives, which are equivalent to a conjunction and demonstrative combined: as, qui ubi sit nescio, for where he is I know not.

## 44. Derivation of Words.

The Root is a primitive element of speech. All roots are monosyllabic, and have a short vowel. Stens are formed from roots, and are divided into two main groups; viz., noun-stems (including adjectives) and verb-stems.

1. Noun Forms. Derivative Nominal forms include (1) nouns of agency, (2) names of actions, (3) active and passive adjectives.

Note.- Examples of roots are es, be; 1, go; sta, stand; cap, take; duc, lead; fac, make; fer, bear; RAP, seize; SEd, sit; ten, stretch (see also pp. 72, 73).
a. Roots and Stems. Roots may be used as stems (1) without change, as in dŭc-is, nĕc-is ; (2) with vowel-increase, as in lūc-is, pāc-is; (3) with reduplication, as in furfur, marmor; (4) compounded, as in judic-is (jus, dico), conjug-is (con-jugo). But Stems are more commonly formed by means of suffixes added to the root (primary), or to a stem (secondary), either with or without the above changes.
b. Primary Suffixes. The simplest suffixes are the vowels a (in Latin o, a), i, u. Other primary suffixes are ta, ti, tu; na, ni, nu; va, ra, ya, ka, an.

Note. - The vowel-suffixes a, $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}$, are sometimes regarded as if merely added to the root to fit it for inflection; but they are, in fact, true pronominal roots, and must be regarded as formative suffixes. The first is found in nouns and adjectives of a- and o-stems, as ludus, vagus, scriba, toga (root teg);-i is less common, and in Latin has frequently disappeared, especially in the nominative, as in scobs (scobis, root scab) ;- $\mathbf{u}$ is disguised in most adjectives by an additional i, as in suavis (for suadvis, cf. $\dot{\eta} \delta \delta_{s}$ ), tenuis (root ten in tendo), and remains alone only in nouns of the fourth declension, as acus (root Ак, sharp, in acer, acies, ढ̈ки́s), pecu (root РАк, bind, in paciscor).

The signification of the other primary suffixes is as follows:-ta (in the form to-) makes the regular perfect participle, as tectus, tectum; sometimes active, as in potus, pransus; and is found in a few not recognized as participles, as putus, altus (alo) ; - $\mathbf{t i}$ forms abstracts, rarely nouns of agency, as messis, vestis, pars, mens; - tu forms abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as actus, luctus; na, forming perfect participles in other languages, in Latin makes adjectives of like meaning, which often become nouns, as magnus ( $=$ mactus, root MAG), plenus, regnum ; - ni, nouns of agency and adjectives, as ignis, segnis;-nu, rare, as in manus, sinus; - ma, various, as in animus, almus, firmus, forma; - va (commonly uo), of active or passive meaning, as in equus, arvum, conspicuus, exiyuus, vaciros (vacuus); - ra (or la, a passive participle termination in other languages), usually passive, as in ager, integer, pleri-que ( $=$ plenus $=-p / \bar{t} t u s$ ), sella (for sed-la, cf. $\varepsilon \delta \rho a$ ); - ya (gerundives in other languages), adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as eximius, audacia, Florentia, pernicies; - ka, sometimes primary, as in pauci (ef. $\pi a \tilde{v} \rho o \varsigma), ~ l o c u s ~(f o r ~ s t l o c u s, ~ c f . ~ S k . ~ s t h a r a, ~ s t h a l a, ~ G e r . ~ S t e l l e, ~$ Eng. stall ) ; - an (in, on ), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as aspergo, compago (žnis), gero (ōnis).

The above, with some compound suffixes given below, belong to the original language, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the literary period. But developed forms of these, with a few other primary suffixes, were used consciously, - generally as secondary suffixes. The old primary suffixes thus used are (along with ta and tu, given above) man, ant, vant, tar, tro, as. (Observe that it is the stem, not the nominative, that is formed by the suffix, although the nominative is given for convenience of reference.)
c. Significant Endings. The principal classes of regular derivate nouns and adjectives, as indicated by their nominativeending, are the following:-

1. Nouns of Agency (active adjectives or appellatives), ending in -
tor (lengthened from tăr, M.), trix (tric- $=\operatorname{tar}+\mathbf{i c}$, F.), added to the same form of stem that precedes $t$ of the supine (which for convenience may be called the supine-base), or to nounstems by analogy: as ductor, victrix, viator. Earlier formations with tar are patër, matër.
es (-ĭtis), descriptive nouns, as miles, comes. MNK. 61
2. Names of Actions (passing into, abstracts, instruments, results): -
or (м.), es (-is, F. - all from as) : as timor, sedes, decus.
io (added to pres. stem), tio, tura, tus (to supine base), verbal abstracts: as legio, actio pictura, cultus (those in tus more concrete). M.M.S9
ium (ya) from neuter abstracts (with verb-stems), as gaudium; or from nouns meaning offices or groups: as hospitium, servitium, collegium.
men (man), mentum (man +ta), monia, monium (man + ya), denoting act, means, or result: as flumen, carmen, ornamentum, querimonia, matrimonium.
ia, tia, tas, tus, tudo, do, go, feminine abstracts, often passing into concretes: as audacia, militia, duritia (ies), bonitas, servitus, plyitudo, dulcedo, lanugo.
brum, crum, t1um, bŭlum, cŭlum, nouns of means, usually from verb-stems : as claustrum, lavacrum, vehiculum, turibulum.
3. Adjective forms, passing frequently into names of persons or things:-
ŭlus (following a vowel, ǒlus; following is or r, cŭlus), ellus, illus, Diminutives (with endings for gender), forming nouns or adjectives, meaning little or tender: as puerculus, puella (puerula), puellula, asellus (asinulus), misellus (miserulus). Rare diminutive forms are eculeus, homuncio.
ădes (F. as), ǐdes, ìdes (f. is, ēis), Patronymics, denoting parentage, \&c., as Eneădes, Priamüdes, Priamēis.
ānus, ēnus, inus; as (-atis), ensis; ius, iăcus, ācius, Gentile names, denoting country - with other rare forms - several being derived from the same word: as Cres, Creticus, Cretcous, Cressus, Cretensis.
ax, ulus (rare), vus (uus, ivus), denote tendency or inclination, those in ax being often faulty or aggressive, those in ivus rather passive : as pugnax, bibulus, protervus, nocuus, captivus.
āris, ālis, ēlis, tlis, ūlis (all from ra), with īnus, ōrius, and several of the above gentile forms, denote various ideas of relation or possession. Several neuters of derivatives in ilis signify place, as ovile; and many of those in ālis, āris (usually with loss of e), also become nouns (regular i-stems); those in inus, from names of animals, are often used of flesh.
eus, ĭnus, āceus, īcius, denote material, \&c. : as fraxineus.
ōsus (old onsus, vant), olens, olentus (root oll in adolesco), denote full of, or inclined to, as fluctuosus, bellicosus; so Ǐdus (generally verbal) with similar meaning: as cupidus, gelidus; bundus, cundus, participial, but denoting persistence of quality: as iracundus.
ātus, ītus, ūtus (from imaginary verb-stems), denote provided with: as galeātus, aurītus, cornūtus.
ter (-tris), timus (a superl. form) from noun-stems : as campester, maritimus; ternus, from adverbs of time: as sempiternus, hesternus (from heri, old hesi, cf. yesterday).
mĭnus, mnus, mna (Gr. - $-\varepsilon v o s ̣$ ), participles, but no longer significant as such: as terminus, alumnus, autumnus, lamina, crumna, femina.
ndus, the gerund-ending, forms a few words of active meaning, as secundus, rotundus (cf. volvendis annis).
4. Derivation of Verbs. Verbs of the third conjugation, with irregular verbs and vowel-stems dă, stă, are primitive. All others are either causative or denominative (formed from nouns).

Note. - The consciousness of roots was lost in Latin, so that in forming the parts of verbs only stems are dealt with. Thus moneo, топиi (not menui), from root men, as in mens; ccedo, cecīdi (not ceč̌di), from root ( $c \breve{a} d$, as in $c \breve{a} d o$ ). For modifications of the root in verb-stems, see $\S \S 28,30$. The derivative suffix in the regular conjugations is original ya added either to the root, the present stem in a, or the noun-stem.
a. The following are the regular conjugational forms:-

1. Verbs of the first conjugation (generally active) may be formed from almost any noun or adjective of the first or second declension, by changing the stem-vowel into the characteristic $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. A few add this vowel to the stem, as vigilare, exsulare.
2. A few verbs of the second conjugation are formed in like manner from noun-stems ; but most add the characteristic $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ to the root, and are intransitive or neuter in their meaning.
3. A few $\mathbf{u}$-stems simply add the characteristic of the third conjugation, becoming either active or intransitive, as acuo, fluo.
4. Most verbs of the fourth conjugation add the characteristic i to the root, as scio, salio; many are formed from $\mathbf{i}$-stems, as sitio, finio, polio (see § 34).
b. The following are regular derivative suffixes:-
sco or isco (§ 36, 1) inchoative, denoting the beginning of an action; they imply a primitive verb-stem, which is sometimes found only in the perfect and supine stems.
asso, esso, denote attempt to do a thing ; they are of the third conjugation in the present stem, and of the fourth in the perfect and supine.
Note. - These are probably denominative, from nouns originally in as (Latin es or us), but seem as if formed upon verb-roots.
to, Ĭto (first conjugation) denote frequent action, being added to the actual supine, or to another form of it, with a connecting vowel $\mathbf{i}$, changing $\mathbf{u}$ to the characteristic $a$ of the first conjugation.
illo (first conjugation) denotes feeble or trifing action like that of some simpler verb, but is formed from some real or supposed diminutive noun.
ŭrio (fourth conjugation), added to the supine-base, denotes desire to do the act expressed by some simple verb; but is formed from some noun of agency in tor (sor). Vizo is a regular inherited desiderative of an earlier formation.
5. Compound Words. In compound words, either (1) the second part is merely added to the first ; (2) the first part modifies the second as an adjective ; (3) the first part is governed by the second as a verb; or (4) a verb is modified by a preposition or adverb prefixed. In all, only the second part receives inflection.

Note. - The Indo-European family had great power of forming compounds with mere stems. This power the Latin for the most part lost, as has English compared with German. Many compounds attempted by poets failed to become established in the language; but there remain many traces of the old usage.

The most usual compounds may be classed as follows :-
a. Meanings added: as suovetaurilia, undecim.
b. Noun with modifying adjective: as latifundium, poeninsula, tergeminus.
c. Noun and Verb, as armiger, cornicen, manifestus, carnufex, mantele.
d. Compound adjectives, in which the last word is a noun, the compound acquiring the meaning of possessed of the property denoted, as alipes, magnanimus, concors, anceps (having a head at both ends), obvius, multiformis, multiplex.
e. Compounds of facio, with an actual or formerly existing verbal stem in e. These are causative in force, as consuefacio, calefacto.
f. Adverbs (of manner) and Verb, which have grown together : as benedico, satago.
g. Verbs with Prepositions, usually having their original adverbial sense: as, ab, away; ex, out. In those with circum, praeter, trans, and sometimes ad and per, the compound retains the force of the preposition.
h. Verbs with the following inseparable Particles, which no longer appear as prepositions in Latin: amb (am, an), around; dis, di, asunder (in two) ; por, forward; red, re, back; sed, se, apart.

## PART SECOND.

## USE OF WORDS (SYNTAX).

## 45. Definitions.

1. Sentence. A Sentence is a form of words which contains either a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.
a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a Declaratory Sentence: as, puer vēnit, the boy came.
b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interrogative Sentence: as, venitne puer, did the boy come?
c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as, quam celeríter venit! how fast he came!
d. A sentence in the form of a Command is called an Imperative Sentence: as, věni, puer, ad me, come to me, boy.
2. Subject and Predicate. The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of; the Predicate is that which is stated of the Subject.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The Predicate may be either a neuter verb, a noun or adjective with the Copula (esse, fiĕri, \&c.), or a Transitive verb with its Object.
b. The verb esse, to be, when it connects an attribute with its subject, is called the Copula; otherwise, it is called the Substantive Verb.

Thus in the sentence sunt viri fortes, there are brave men, sunt is a substantive verb; in viri sunt fortes, the men are brave, it is a copula.
c. The Object of a verb is that on which its action is exerted: thus in the sentence pater vocat filium, the father calls his son, pater is subject, and filium object, of vocat.
d. One or more words, essential to the grammatical completeness of a sentence, may be unexpressed : this is called Eluipsis, and the sentence is called an elliptical sentence.
3. Modification. The Subject or Predicate of a sentence may be modified by single words, or by a phrase or clause. The modifying word may itself be modified in the same way.
a. A single modifying word is generally either an Adjéctive, an Adyerb, an Appositive ( $\S 46$ ), or the oblique case of a Noun. Thus in the sentence puer formosus venit, a handsome boy came, the adjective formosus modifies the subject puer; in the sentence celeriter venit, he came quickly, the adverb celeriter modifies the predicate venit.
b. The modifying word is in some cases said to limit the word to which it belongs: thus in the sentence video pueri patrem, I see the boy's father, the genitive pueri limits patrem.
4. Phrase. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or Adverb.

Thus in the sentence puer erat eximiae formae, he was a boy of remarkable beauty, the words eximiae formae are used for the adjective formosus (or formosissimus), and are called an Adjective Phrase; in the sentence magnā celeritate venit, he came with great speed, the words magna celeritate are used for the adverb celeriter (or celerrime), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.
5. Clause. A Clause is a group of words forming part of a sentence, and having a subject and predicate of its own.

Thus in the sentence puer qui heri venit formosus erat, the boy who came yesterday was handsome, the words qui heri venit are a Relative Clause; in the sentence puer si cras veniat acceptus sit, if the boy should come to-morrow he would be welcome, the words si cras veniat, are a Conditional Clause.
a. When a Clause is used as the Subject or Object of a verb, it is called a Substantive Clause (see § 70).
b. When a clause is used to modify the subject or predicate of a sentence, it is called a Subordinate Clause. Subordinate Clauses are Conditional, Temporal, Causal, Consecutive, and Finul, like the conjunctions which introduce them (§43, 1, b).
c. When two or more clauses in the same sentence are independent of one another, they are said to be Coördinate.
d. Any clause introduced by a Relative is called a Relative Clause ; when used simply by way of explanation, and not otherwise connected with the form of the sentence, it is called an Intermediate Clause (§ 66).
e. A clause expressing the purpose of an action is called a Final Clause; one expressing its result is called a Consecutive Clause (see §§ 64, 65).

Note. - In English, a Consecutive clause is introduced by the phrase so that; a Final clause by the phrase in order that.
$f$. A clause containing a condition, introduced by IF or some equivalent (§59), is called a Conditional Clause. A sentence modified by a conditional clause is called a Conditional Sentence.

Note. - Observe that these classes are not exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a relative clause may be subordinate, conditional, or intermediate; and two subordinate clauses may be coördinate with each other.
6. Connectives. Sentences or coördinate clauses are regularly connected by means of Conjunctions; but frequently in Latin - very rarely in English - sentences are connected by Relatives.

In this case, the relative is often best translated in English by a conjunction with a demonstrative: as, quo cum venisset, and when he had come there; quae cum ita sint, but since these thinys are so $(\S 43,3, k)$.
7. Agreement. A word is said to Agree with another when it is required to be in the same gender, number, case, or person.

When a word takes the gender or number of some other word implied in that with which it should agree, this use is called Synesis, or constructio ad sensum.
8. Government. A word is said to Govern another, when it requires the latter to be in a particular case.

## I. Subject and Predicate.

## 46. Or Nouns.

A noun used to describe another, and meaning the same thing, agrees with it in Case: as,

## Servius rex, Servius the king.

 ad urbem Solos, to the city Soli. spes nostra Cicero, Cicern our hope. homo nata fuerat, she had been born human.1. When the noun thus used is in the same part of the sentence (subject or predicate) it is called an appositive, and the use is called apposition.
2. When the noun is used to form a predicate with esse or a verb of similar meaning, it is called a predicate-nominative (or accusative as the case may be).
externus timor, maximum concordix vinculum, jungebat animos (Liv. ii. 39), fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united hearts. [Here both nouns belong to the subject.]
quattuor hic, primum omen, equos vidi ( En . iii. 537), I saw here four horses, the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
Ancum Marcium regem populus creavit (Liv. i. 32), the people made Apicus Marcius king. [Here regem is called the complementary accusative.]
consules creantur Cæsar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Casar and Servilius are made consuls. [Here consules is predicate-nominative after creantur.]
litteras Græcas senex didici (Cat. M. 8), I learned Greek when an old man. [Here senex is in apposition with the subject of didici, expressing the time, condition, \&c., of the act.]
Gnæus et Publius Scipiones, the Scipios, Cneius and Publius. [Here the appositive is plural, as referring to more than one subject.]
gloria virtutem tanquam umbra sequitur (Tusc. i. 45). [Here the appositive is introduced by way of comparison.]
a. The appositive will agree in gender when it can; sometimes also in number: as,

Aristæus, olivæ inventor (N. D. iii. 18), Aristaus, discoverer of the olive.
olex Minerva inventrix (G. i. 18), Minerva, inventress of the olive.
quia sequuntur naturam, optimam ducem (Læl. 19), because they follow nature, the best guide.
omnium doctrinarum inventrices Athenas (De Or. i. 4), Athens, discoverer of all learning.
b. A common noun in apposition with a locative is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in: as,

Antiochiæ, celebri quondam urbe (Arch. 3), at Antiock, once a famous city.
Albæ constiterunt in urbe munitâ (Phil. iv. 2), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.
c. The genitive is used in apposition with possessives, taking the gender and number of the implied subject: as,
in nostro omnium fletu (Mil. 34), amid the tears of us all.
ex Annianâ Milonis domo (Att. iv. 3), out of Annius Milo's house.
Note. - The proper appositive is sometimes put in the Genitive. See § $\mathbf{5 0}, \mathbf{r}, f$.

## 47. Of Adjectives.

Adjectives agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case. This rule applies also to adjective pronouns and participles.
vir fortis, a brave man.
cum ducentis militibus, with 200 men. consularia munera, the duties of consul. hac lege, by this law. uno interfecto, one being slain.

Remark. - The adjective may be either attributive or predicate. An attributive adjective simply qualifies the noun without the intervention of a verb; a predicate adjective is connected with its noun by esse, or a verb of similar meaning, expressed or implied.

An adjective may also be used in apposition like a noun : as,
Hortensium vivum amavi (Off. iii. 18), I loved Hortensius when living.

1. With two or more nouns the adjective is plural (also, rarely, when they are connected with cum) : as,

Nisus et Euryalus primi ( $\mathbb{I}$. v. 394), Nisus and Euryalus first. Juba cum Labieno capti (B. Afr. 52), Fuba and Labienus were taken.
2. When nouns are of different genders, an attributive adjective agrees with the nearest: as,
multæ operæ ac laboris, of much trouble and toil.
vita moresque mei, my life and character.
si res, si vir, si tempus ullum dignum fuit (Mil. 7), if any thing, if any man, if any time, was fit.
a. A predicate adjective may follow the same rule if the subjects form one connected idea: ăs,
factus est strepitus et admurmuratio (Verr. i. 15), a noise of assent was made.
b. Generally, a predicate adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean living beings; neuter, if things without life: as,
uxor deinde ac liberi amplexi (Liv. ${ }^{\text {ii. }} 40$ ), then his wife and children embraced him.
labor (M.) voluptasque (F.) societate quâdam inter se naturali sunt juncta (N.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.
c. Abstract nouns of the same gender may have a neuter adjective: as,
stultitia et temeritas et injustitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. ir), folly, rashness, and injustice must be shunned.
pax et concordia jactata sunt (Tac. Hist. ii. 20), peace and karmony were talked of.
d. A masculine or femine adjective may belong (by Synesis) to a noun of different gender or number, when the existence of persons is implied: as,
duo milia relicti (Liv. xxxvii. 39), two thousand were left.
pars certare parati (Æn.v. ro8), a part ready to contend.
magna pars raptæ (Liv. i.9), a large part [of the women] were seized.
coloniæ aliquot deductæ, Prisci Latini appellati (id. i.3), several colonies were led out. [of men] called Old Latins.
e. An adjective pronoun agrees in gender with a word in apposition rather than with its antecedent: as, Hoc ohus, hic labor rerum caput hoc erat, hic fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17), this was the head of things, this the source.
eam sapientiam interpretantur quam adhuc mortalis nemo est consecutus [for id ... quod] (Læl. 5), they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained.
$f$. Occasionally, an adjective takes the gender of a partitive genitive: as,
velocissimum animalium delphinus est (Plin.), the dolphin is the swiftest of creatures.
3. Adjectives are often used as nouns, the masculine to denote men, and the feminine women: as, omneś, all men, or everybody; majores, ancestors; veteres, the ancients; barbari, barbarians; amīcus, a friend.
instinctu purpuratorum (Curt. iii. 9), at the instigation of the courtiers [those clad in purple].
iniquus noster (Planc. 2.), our foe.
didicit jam dives avarus laudare disertos (Juv. vii. 30), the rich miser has now learned to fatter the eloquent.

Note. - The singular of adjectives in this use is more rare; the plural is very frequent, and may be used of any adjective or participle, to denote those in general described by it.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. This is especially frequent with possessives: as,
nostri, our countrymen, or men of our party.
Sullani, the veterans of Sulla's armey.
suos continebat (B. C. i. 15), he held his men in check.
6. The demonstratives is, ille, \&c., used in this way, have nearly the force of personal pronouns. They are often thus used in apposition with a noun, or a clause: as,
vincula, eaque sempiterna (Cat. iv. 4), chains, and that for ever.
exspectabam tuas litteras, idque cum multis (Fąm. x. 14), $I$, with many others, am expecting your letter.
c. On the other hand, a noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may be qualified by an adverb (compare $\S 16,3, e$ ): as, victor exercituś, the victorious army. servum pecus, a servile troop. admodum puer, quite a boy. magis vir, more of a man. fautor inepte (Hor.), a stupid admirer.
4. A neuter adjective may be used as a noun -
a. In the singular, to denote either a single object or an abstract quality: as,
rapto vivere, to live by plunder. in arido, on dry ground.
honestum, an honorable act, or honor (as a quality).
b. In the plural, to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence the abstract idea: as,
honesta, honorable deeds (in general), or honor (in the abstract).
omnium ignarus, ignorant of all.
justis solutis, the due rites being paid.
c. In apposition, or as predicate, to a noun of different gender: as,
turpitudo pejus est quam dolor (Tusc. ii. 13), disgrace is worse than pain.
labor bonum non est (Sen. Ep. 31), toil is no grood thing.
d. In agreement with an infinitive or a substantive clause: as, aliud est errare Cæsarem nolle, aliud nolle misereri (Lig. 5), it is one tling to be unwilling that Casar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

Remark. - The neuter of an adjective is ordinarily used as a noun only in the nominative and accusative : as,
omnia, all things (everything); but, omnium rerum, of all things (omnium is usually of all persons); - loquitur de omnibus rebus, he talks about everything (de omnibus, about everybody).
5. Adjectives denoting source or possession may be used for the genitive : as,

Pompeiana acies, Pompey's line. video herilem filium (Ter.), I spy master's son. æs alienum, another's money, i.e. DEbT.
a. Possessives are thus regularly used for the genitive of the personal pronouns : as, domus mea, my house; nostra patria, our country.
b. A possessive in any case may have a genitive in apposition ( $\$ 46, c$ ) : as,

> mea solius causa, for my sake.
> nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.
c. An adjective is occasionally thus used for the objective genitive ( $\S 50,3, b$ ) : as,
metus hostilis (Jug. 41), fear of the enemy.
femincâ in pœnầ (Virg.), in punishing a woman.
periculo invidiæ meæ (Cat. ii. 2), at the risk of odium against me.
studiosus cædis ferinæ (Ov. M. vii. 675), eager to slaughter game.
6. An adjective, with the subject or object, is often used to qualify the act, having the force of an adverb: as,
primus venit, he came first (was the first to come).
nullus dubito, I no way doubt.
læti audiêre, they were glad to hear.
patre invito discessit, he departed against his father's wishes.
erat Romæ frequens (Rosc. Am. 6), he was often at Rome.
serus in cœlum redeas (Hor. Od. i. 2), may'st thou return late to heaven.
\%. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives (or adverbs) are in the comparative: as,
longior quam latior acies erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).
a. But not where magis is used: as,
clari magis quam honesti (Jug. 8), more renowned than honorable.
b. A comparative with a positive, or even two positives, may be thus connected by quam (a rare and less elegant use): as,
vehementius quam caute (Agric. 4), with more fury than good heed.
claris majoribus quam vetustis (Ann. iv. 6I), of a family more famous than old.
8. Superlatives denoting order and succession often designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant: as,

> summus mons, the top of the hill. in ultima platæa, at the end of the avenue. So, prior actio, the earlier part of an action.

Also, međius, midst ; ceterus, other; relĭquus, remaining: as, reliqui captivi, the rest of the prisoners. in colle medio (B. G. i. 24), on the middle of the hill. inter ceteram planitiem (Jug. 92), in a region elsewhere level.: Similarly, serā nocte, late at night; nos omnes, all of us (§ 50, 2).
9. The expressions alter . . . alter, alius . . . alius (as also the adverbs. derived from them), may be used reciprocally; or may imply a change of predicate as well as of subject: as,
hi fratres alter alterum amant, these brothers love each other.
alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, one another.
alius aliâ ex navi, out of different ships.
alius aliâ viâ civitatem auxerunt (Liv. i. 21), they enlarged the State each in his own way.
For the use of Adjectives as Adverbs, see § 16, 3, $f$.
For the ablative used adverbially with Comparatives, see § 54, 6, e.

## 48. Of Relatives.

A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in gender and number; but its case depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands : as,
puer qui vēnit, the boy who came; liber quem legis, the book you are reading; via quā ambulat, the way he walks in.

Note. - A Relative is properly an adjective pronoun, of which the proper noun (the Antecedent) is usually omitted. The full construction would require a corresponding demonstrative, to which the relative refers. Hence, relatives serve two uses :-1. As Nouns in their own clause ; 2. As Connectives, and are thus often equivalent to a demonstrative and conjunction combined (see §69). The connective force is not original, but is developed from a demonstrative or indefinite meaning; the relative and the antecedent clause being originally co-ordinate.

1. A Verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent : as, adsum qui feci (Æn. ix. 427), here am I who did it.
2. A relative generally agrees in gender with a noun (appositive) in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender : as,
mare etiam quem Neptunum esse dicebas (N. D. iii. 20), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. A relative may (rarely) by Attraction agree with its antecedent in case: as,
si aliquid agas eorum quorum consuêsti (Fam. v. 14), if you do something of what you are used to.
b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an implied antecedent: as,
quartum genus . . . qui premuntur (Cat. ii. 10), a fourth class, that are sinking.
unus ex eo numero qui parati erant (Jug. 35), one of the number [of those] who were ready.
conjuravêre pauci ... de quâ [conjuratione] dicam (Sall. C. 18), a few have conspired. . . of which [conspiracy] I will speak.
3. The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; usually only in the one that precedes; sometimes it is wholly omitted : thus -
a. The noun may be repeated in the relative clause: as, loci natura erat hæc quem locum nostri delegerant (B. G.ii. 18), the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.
b. The noun may appear only in the relative clause: as, quas res in consulatu nostro gessimus attigit hic versibus (Arch. 11), he has touched in verse the things which we did in our consulship.
urbem quam statuo vestra est (ङn. i. 573), yours is the city which I found.

In such cases the demonstrative is or hic usually stands in the antecedent clause: as,
quæ pars civitatis calamitatem populo Romano intulerat, ea princeps pœnas persolvit (B. G. i. I2), that part of the State which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.
Remark. - In a sentence of this class, the relative clause in Latin usually stands first; but, in translating, the noun should be transferred, in its proper case, to the antecedent clause, as in the example just quoted.
c. The antecedent noun may be omitted: as,
qui decimæ legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.
qui cognoscerent misit (id. i. 21), he sent men to reconnoitre.
d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with the antecedent may stand in the relative clause: as,
vasa ea quæ pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 27), those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house.
e. The phrase id quod or quae res is used (instead of quod alone) : to relate to an idea or group of words before expressed as,
[obtrectatum est] Gabinio dicam anne Pompeio? an utrique id quod est verius? (Manil. 19), an affront is offered shall I say to Gabinius or Pompey? or -which is truer - to both?
4. A relative often stands at the beginning of a clause or sentence, where in English a demonstrative must be used : as,
quæ cum ita sint, since these things are so.
quorum quod simile factum? (Cat. iv. 8), what ever happened. like this?
qui illius in te amor fuit (Fam. iv. 5), such was his love for you.
5. A Relative Adverb is often equivalent to the relative pronoun with a preposition: as,
quo (= ad quem), to whom; unde (= a quo), from whom, \&c. : as,
apud eos quo se contulit (Verr. iv. 18), among those to whom he resorted.
qui eúm necâsset unde ipse natus esset (Rosc. Am. 26), one who should have slain his own father.

A similar use is found with the demonstratives eo, inde, \&c: as, eo imponit vasa (Jug. 75), upon them [the beasts] he puts the baggage.

## 49. Verbs.

A Verb agrees with its subject-nominative in number and person: as,
ego statuo, I resolve; oratio est habita, the plea was spoken.
Remark. -The verb in the periphrastic forms sometimes agrees in gender and number with the predicate, or with a noun in apposition: as,
non omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Parad. vi. 3), not every error should be called folly.
Corinthus lumen Græciæ exstinctum est, Corinth the light of Greece is put out.
deliciæ meæ Dicearchus disseruit (Tusc. i. 31), my pet Dicearchus discoursed.

1. Two or more singular subjects take a verb in the plural; also, rarely, when one is in the ablative with cum: as,
pater et avus mortui sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.
dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur (Liv. xxi. 60), the general and several chiefs are taken.
a. When the subjects are of different persons, the verb will be in the first and the second rather than the third: as,
si tu et Tullia valetis ego et Cicero valemus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.
b. If the subjects are joined by disjunctives, or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is singular : as,
neque fides neque jusjurandum neque illum misericordia repres-
sit (Ter. Ad.), not faith nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.
Senatus populusque Romanus intellegit (Fam. v.8), the Roman Senate and people understand.
c. A collective noun - also such distributives as quisque, every; uterque, each - may take a plural verb: as,
pars predas agebant (Jug. 32), a part brought in booty.
suum quisque habeant quod suum est (Plaut. Curc.), let every one keep his own.
This is most common in poetry.
d. When the action of the verb belongs to the subjects separately, it may agree with one and be understood with the others: as,
intercedit M. Antonius et Cassius tribuni plebis (B. C. i. 2), Antony and Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.
2. The Subject of a finite verb is in the nominative.

Defin. - A Finite Verb is a verb in any mood except the Infinitive.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic: thus,
loquor, I speak; ego loquor, it is I that speak.
b. An indefinite subject is often omitted: as, dicunt (ferunt, perhibent), they say.
c. The verb is sometimes omitted in certain phrases: as,
quorsum hæc [spectant]? what does this aim at?
ex ungue leonem [cognosces], you will know a lion by his claw. The indicative and infinitive of esse are most frequently omitted. (For the Historical Infinitive, see § 57, 8, h.)

## II. Construction of Cases.

Note. - The Oblique Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. Originally, the family of languages to which Latin belongs had at least seven cases, besides the vocative, all expressing different relations. Of these the Locative and Instrumental cases were lost, and their functions divided among the others.

The names of the cases, except the Ablative, are of Greek origin. The name genitive - Gr. $\gamma \in \nu \iota \kappa \dot{\eta}$, from $\gamma^{\prime}$ voos - refers, originally, to the class to which anything belongs. The dative- $\delta 0 \tau<\kappa \mathfrak{y}$ - is the case of giving. The name accusative is a mistranslation of airıarıкŋ́, signifying that which is effected or caused (airla).

## 50. Genitive.

A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same thing, is put in the genitive.

Note. - This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition of. The genitive seems originally to have meant that from which something springs; hence, that to which it belongs. From this signification most of its others may be deduced.

1. Subjective Genitive. The Genitive is used to denote the Author, Owner, Source, and (with an adjective) Measure or Quality : as,
libri Ciceronis, the books of Cicero.
Cæsaris horti, Casar's gardens. culmen tecti, the roof of the house.
a. For the genitive of possession a possessive adjective is often used, -regularly for that of the personal pronouns: as,
liber meus, my book.
aliena pericula, other men's dangers.
Sullana tempora, the times of Sulla.
b. The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: as,

Castoris [ædes], the [temple] of Castor.
Hectoris Andromache, Hector's [wife] Andromache.
c. The genitive is often in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb, like a predicate appositive: as,
hæc domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.
tutelæ nostræ [eos] duximus (Liv.), we held them to be in our protection.
Thrasybuli facta lucri fecit (Nep. viii. 1), he made profit of the deeds of Thrasybulus.
Tyros mare dicionis suæ fecit (Curt.iv. 4), Tyre brought the sea under her sway.
hominum non causarum toti erant (Liv. iii. 36), they belonged wholly to the men, not to the cause.
d. A phrase or clause often stands for the limited noun; this is most frequent with the genitive of adjectives or abstract nouns : as, neque sui judici [erat] decernere (B. C. ì. 35), it was not for his judgment to decide.
timidi est optare necem (Ov. M. iv. 15), it is for the coward to wish for death.
Remark. - The genitive of an adjective (especially of the third declension) is thus used instead of the neuter nominative: as,
sapientis [not sapiens] est pauca loqui, it is wise [the part of a wise man] to say little.
The neuter of possessives is used in the same way: as, mentiri non est meum, it is not for me to lie. humanum [for hominis] est errare, it is man's to err.
$\boldsymbol{e}$. A genitive may denote the substance of which a thing consists (a modified form of the idea of source): as,
talentum auri, a talent of gold.
flumina lactis, rivers of milk.
navis auri (compare Part. Gen.), a shipload of gold.
$f$. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition : as,
nomen insaniæ, the word madness.
oppidum Antiochiæ, the city of Antioch.
g. The genitive is used to denote quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective (usually an indefinite one): as, vir summæ virtutis, a man of the highest courage.
magnæ est deliberationis, it is an affair of great deliberation.
magni formica laboris, the ant, [a creature] of great toil.
So ejus modi, of that sort.
(Compare the Ablative of Quality, § 54, 7.)
h. The genitive (of quality), with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, \&c.: as,
fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [depth]. murus sedecim pedum, $a$ wall sixteen feet [high].
minor nulla erat duâm milium amphorâm (Fam. xii. 15), none held less than 2000 jars.
i. Certain adjectives of Quantity - as magni, pluris, and the like - are used in the genitive to express indefinite value. (Also the nouns nihili, flocci, nauci, pili, pensi, terunci, assis, see Ablative of Price, § 54, 8.)

Remark. - The genitive is often followed by the ablatives causā, gratiā, for the sake of; ergo, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like.
2. Partitive Genitive. Words denoting a part are followed by the genitive of the whole to which the part belongs. Partitive words are the following: -
a. Nouns or Pronouns: as, pars militum, part of the soldiers. quis nostrum, which of us? (but nos omnes, all of $u s$ ). nihil erat reliqui, there was nothing left. vastatur agri [id] quod...(Liv. i. 14), so much of the land is wasted as, dec.
b. Numerals, Comparatives, and Superlatives: as, alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls. unus tribunorum, one of the tribunes.
plurimum totius Galliæ equitatu valet (B. G. v. 3), is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.
c. Neuter adjectives and pronouns used as nouns: as,
tantum spati, so muck space. aliquid nummorum, a few pence.
id loci (or locorum), that spot of ground.
id temporis, at that time. plana urbis, the level parts of the town. quid novi, what news?
Remark. - Of adjectives of the third declension the genitive is only rarely used in this way: thus,

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nihil novi (gen.), nothing new ; but
nihil memorabile (nom.), nothing worth mention.
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d. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place : as,
satis pecuniæ, money enough.
parum oti, not muchease.
ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we?
inde loci, next in order.
istuc æqui bonique, to that degree of equity and goodness.
tum temporis, at that point of time.
eo miseriarum (Sall.), to that pitch of misery.
e. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case : as,
sequimur te sancte deorum ( (£n. iv. 576 ), we follow thee, $O$ holy deity.
nigræ lanarum (Plin. H. N. viii. 48), black wools.
electi juvenum (Liv. xxx. 9), the choice of the young men.
Remark. -1. Cardinal numbers, with quidam, a certain one, more commonly, other words rarely, take the ablative with e (ex) or de, instead of the genitive : as,
unus ex tribunis, one of the tribunes. minumus ex illis (Jug. II), the youngest of them. medius ex tribus (ib.), the midst of the three.
2. With nouns uterque generally agrees as an adjective; but with pronouns it always takes a genitive : as,

> uterque consul, both the consuls. uterque nostrum, both of us.
3. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of anything - as omnes, all; quot, how many - take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive : as,
nos omnes, all of $u s$.
qui omnes, all of whom.
quot sunt hostes, how many of the enemy are there?
cave inimicos qui multi sunt, beware of your enemies, of whom you have many.
So when no others are thought of, although such exist: as,

> multi milites, many of the soldiers. nemo Romanus, not one Roman.
4. Rarely two genitives are used with one noun : as, animi multarum rerum percursio (Tusc. iv. 13), the mind's traversing of many things.
3. Objective Genitive. With many nouns and adjectives implying action, the genitive is used to denote the object.

Note. - This is an extension of the idea of belonging to; as in the phrase odium Caesaris, hate of Cossar, the hate in a passive sense belongs to Cæsar, though in its active sense he is the object of it.
a. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object: as,
desiderium oti, longing for rest.
vacatio militiæ, a respite of military service.
gratia benefici, gratitude for a kindness.
fuga malorum, refuge from disaster.
laudator temporis acti, a praiser of the past.
injuria mulierum Sabinarum (Liv.), the wrong done to the Sabine women.
memoria nostri tua (Fam. xiii. 17), your memory of us. consensio divinarum humanarumque rerum (Læl. 6), the harmony of divine and human things.
vim suorum pro suo periculo defendebant (B.C. iii. 110), they parried the attack on their comrades as if it were their own peril.
Occasionally possessive adjectives are used in the same way (see § 47, 5, c).
b. Adjectives requiring an object of reference (relative adjectives) govern the genitive.

These are -1. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; 2. Verbals in ax; 3. Participles in ns when used to denote a disposition and not a particular act, so that they become adjectives: as,
avidus laudis, greedy of praise.
fastidiosus literarum, disdaining letters.
juris peritus, skilled in law.
habetis ducem memorem vestri oblitum sui (Cat. iv. 9), you have a leader who thinks of you and forgets himself.
plena consiliorum inania verborum (De Or. i. 9), full of wisdom, void of zoords.
rationis et orationis expertes (Off. i. 16), devoid of reason and speech.
virtutis compos (id.), possessed of virtue.
paternorum bonorum exheres (De Or. i. 38), ousted from his father's estate.
rei capitalis affinis (2 Verr. ii. 43), accessory to a capital crime.
justum ac tenacem propositi virum (Hor. Od. iii. 3), a man just and steadfast to his purpose.
si quem tui amantiorem cognovisti (Q. Fr. ix. 1), if you have known any more fond of you. multitudo insolens belli (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war. sitiens sanguinis, thirsting for blood. But,
Tiberius sitiens sanguinem (Tac.), Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.
c. Some other adjectives of similar meaning occasionally take the genitive; and the poets and late writers use almost any adjective with a genitive of specification: as,
callidus rei militaris (Tac. H. ii. 31), skilled in soldiership.
pecuniæ liberales (Sall. C-7), lavish of money.
virtutum sterile seculum (id. i. 3), a century barren in virtue.
pauper aquarum (Hor.), scant of water.
prodigus æris (id.), a spendthrift of wealth.
notus animi, of known bravery.
fessi rerum (Virg.), weary of toil.
læta laborum (id.), glad of work.
modicus voluptatis, moderate in pleasure.
integer vitæ scelerisque purus (Hor.), upright in life, and clear of guilt.
docilis modorum (id.), teachable in measures.
Remark. - Animi (strictly a locative, plural animis), is added to adjectives of feeling: as,

> æger animi, sick at heart. confusus animi, disturbed in spirit.
d. A few adjectives of likeness, nearness, belonging - requiring the dative as such - take the possessive genitive: these are, aequalis, affinis, communis, finitimus, par; propinquus, proprius (regularly), similis, vicinus.

Remark. - One noun limiting another is regularly used in the genitive, and not with a preposition, - prepositions being originally adverbs, and requiring a verb. Sometimes, however, one noun has another connected with it by a preposition. This happens with nouns of action, feeling, and motion; some relations of place to or in which or from which (including origin); accompaniment, \&c.: as, "
> odium in Cæsarem (or odium Cæsaris), hate of Casar.
> merita erga me (Cic.), services to me.
> auxilium adversus inimicos (id.), help against enemies.
> reditus in cælum (id.), return to heaven.
> impetus in me (id.), attack on me.
> excessus e vitâ (id.), departure from life.
> e prolio nuntius, a messenger from the battle.
> castra ad Bagradam (Cæs.), camp near the Bagrada. invidia ob scelera (Sall.), odium for his crimes. So, domum reditionis spes (id.), the lope of returning home.
4. Genitive after Verbs. The genitive is used as the object of several classes of Verbs.
a. Verbs of Remembering, Forgetting, and Reminding, take the genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the accusative when used of a single act: as,
pueritiæ memoriam recordari (Arch.i.), to recall the memory of childhood.
animus meminit præteritorum (Div. i. 30), the soul remembers the past.
venit mihi in mentem illius diei, I bethought me of that day. obliviscere cædis atque incendiorum (Cat.), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations.
bona præterita non meminerunt (Fin. ii. 20), they do not remember past blessings.
memineram Paullum (Cat. M. 2), I remembered Paulus.
memini etiam quæ nolo (Fin. ii. 33), I remember even what I would not.
totam causam oblitus est (Brut. 60), he forgot the whole case.
Remark. - The above distinction is unimportant as to verbs of reminding, which take the genitive except of neuter pronouns : as, hoc te admoneo, I warn you of this. The accusative is always used of a person or thing remembered by an eye-witness. Recordor is almost always construed with an accusative, or with a phrase or clause.
b. Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting, take the genitive of the charge or penalty: as,
arguit me furti, he accuses me of theft.
peculatas damnatus (pecuniæ publicæ damnatus) (Flac. 18), condemned for embezzlement.
capitis damnatus, condemned to death.
Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are -
capitis (damnare capitis, to sentence to death);
majestatis, treason (crime against the dignity of the State);
repetundarum, extortion (lit. of an action for claiming back money wrongfully taken);
voti (damnatus or reus voti, bound to the payment of one's vow, i.e. successful in one's efforty.
Remark. - The crime may be expressed by the ablative with de; the punishment by the ablative alone: as, h. 293 (z)
de vi et majestatis damnati (Phil.i.), condemned of assault and treason.
vitia autem hominum atque fraudes damnis, ignominiis, vinculis, verberibus, exiliis, morte damnantur (De Or. i. 43), but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dis. honor, chains, scourging, exile, death.
But, inter sicarios accusare (defendere), to accuse of murder.
c. Many verbs of Emotion take the genitive of the object which excites the feeling (Gen. of source). These are -

1. Verbs of pity, as misereor and miseresco: as, miserescite regis (En. viii. 573), pity the king.
miserere animi non digna ferentis (id. ii. 144), pity a soul that endures unworthy things.
But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative.
2. The impersonals miseret, piget, poenitet, pudet, taedet (or pertaesum est), which take also the accusative of the person affected (§ 39, 2) : as,
hos homines infamiæ suæ neque pudet neque tædet (Vern. i.
12), these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor.
Remark. - An infinitive or clause may be used with these verbs instead of the genitive of a noun: as, me pœnitet hæc fecisse, I repent of having done this.
Sometimes they are used personally: as,
nonne te hæc' pudent (Ter. Ad.), do not these things shame you?
d. The impersonal interest and rēfert, it concerns, takes the genitive of the person affected, - the subject of the verb being a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause: as,

Clodi intererat Milonem perire (Mil. 21), it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.
But instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun the possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine: as,
quid tuâ id refert? - magni (Ter. Ph.), how does that concern you? muck.
refert is seldom used in any other way ; but it takes, rarely, the datives commodi (Hor. Sat. i. 1, 49). The object of interest is sometimes in the accusative with ad: as,
mani ad honorem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. r), it is of consequence to our honor.
Note. - The word interest may be used (1) impersonally with the genitive, as above ; (2) personally with the dative: as, interest exercitui, he is present with the army; (3) with the accusative and perepositions : as, interest inter exercitum et castra, he is between -or, there is a difference between -the army and camp.
e. Some verbs of plenty and want govern the genitive (rarely, except egeo and indigeo, need) : as,
quid est quod defensionis indigent? (Rose. Am. 12), what is there that needs defence?
satagit rerum suarum, he has his hands full with his own affairs.

Also, sometimes, potior, get possession of ; as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to be master of affairs. But these verbs more commonly take the ablative.

Remark. - The genitive is also used after the adverbs pridie, the day before; postridie, the day after; tenus, as far as: as, postridie ejus diei (B. G. v. 10), the next day.

## 51. Dative.

The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by the action, which is usually denoted in English by TO or FOR (Indirect Object).

Note. - The dative seems to have the primary meaning of towards, and to be closely akin to the Locative. But this meaning is lost in Latin, except in some adverbial forms (eo, illo, \&c.) and in the poets. In most of its derived meanings, it denotes an object not merely (like the Accusative) as passively affected by the action, or caused by it; but as reciprocally sharing in the action, or receiving it actively. Thus, in dedit mihi librum, he gave me a book, or fecit mihi injuriam, he did me an injury; it is I that receive the book or feel the wrong. Hence persons, or objects personified, are most likely to be in the dative. So in the Spanish, the dative is used whenever a Person is the object of an action: as, yo veo al hombre, I see the man.

As this difference between the accusative and dative (direct and indirect object) depends on the view taken by the writer, verbs of similar meaning in different languages, or even in the same, differ.in the case of the object. In English, especially, owing to the loss of its cases, many verbs are construed as transitive, which in Latin require the dative. Thus believe, which in English originally governed the genitive, has become transitive; while the corresponding verb in Latin, credo (a compound of cred and do (DHA), to place confidence in) takes the dative.

1. Dative with Transitives. Transitive verbs, whose meaning permits it, take the dative of the indirect object, with the accusative of the direct.

These are, especially, verbs of Giving, Telling, Sending, and the like: as,
do tibi librum, I give you a book.
valetudini tribuamus aliquid (Tusc. i. i18), let us allow something to health.
illud tibi affirmo (Fam. i. 7), this $I$ assure you.
Pompeio plurimum debebam (id. i. 9), I owed much to Pompey.
id omne tibi polliceor ac defero (Man. 24), all this I promise
commendo tibi ejus omnia negotia (Fam. i. 1), I put all his affairs in your hands.
amico munusculum mittere 'id. ix. 12), to send a slight tribute to a friend.
illi inimico servum rem. (Deiot. ii.), to him, his enemy, he returned a slave.
dabis profecto misericordiæ quod iracundiæ negavisti (id. 14), you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.
Karthagini bellum denuntio (Cat. M. 6), I announce war to Carthage.
curis gaudia misces (Catull. - only poet.), thou minglest joy with care.
a. In the passive, such verbs retain the dative of the indirect object: as,
hæc nobis nuntiantur, these things are told us.
b. When the idea of motion is distinctly conveyed, a preposition is used (except by poetic use) : as,

> has litteras ad te mitto, I send you this letter.
c. A few verbs of this class-under a different view of the action - may take the accusative of a person, with an ablative of means.

Such verbs are dono, impertio, induo, exuo, adspergo, inspergo, circumdo, circumfundo, prohibeo, intercludo. Thus -
donat coronas suis, he presents wreaths ta his men; or,
donat suos coronis, he presents his men with wreaths.
pomis se induit arbos (G. iv. 143), the tree decks itself with fruits.
copiis (dat.) armis exutis (B. G. iii. 6), the forces being stripped of arms.
aram sanguine adspergere (N. D. iii. 36), to sprinkle the altar with blood.
2. Dative after Intransitives. Intransitive verbs take the dative of the indirect object only: as,
cedant arma togæ (Phil. i. 8), let arms give way to the gown. quid homini potest turpius usuvenire (Quinct. 15), what more shameful can befall a man?
respondi maximis criminibus (Phil. i. 14), I have answered the heaviest charges.
ut ita cuique eveniat (id. 46), that it may so turn out to each.
manent ingenia senibus (Cat. M. 7), old men keep their powers of mind.
vento et fluctibus loqui (Lucr. iv. 491), to talk to wind and wave.
nec quereris patri (Juv. ii. 131), you complain not to a father. non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum (Hor. Ep. i. 17), it is not every man's luck to $\xi^{\mathrm{mal}}$ Corinth.
a. Most verbs signifying to fävor, help; please, serve, trust, and their contraries, - also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, - take the Dative in Latin, though transitive in English.

These include, among others, the following: adversor, credo, faveo, fido, ignosco, impĕro, invǐdeo, irascor, noceo, parco, pareo, placeo, servio, studeo, suādeo (persuadeo) : as,
cur mihi invides, why do you envy me?
civitati serviebat, he served the state.
tibi favemus, we favor you.
mihi parcit atque ignoscit, he spares and pardons me.
sontibus opitulari poteram (Fam. iv. 13), I was able to help the guilty.
bonis invident (Sall.), they envy the good.
Catoni resistimus (Fam. i. 1); we withstand Cato.
non omnibus servio (id. xvi. 13), I am not a servant to every man.
cum ceteris tum mihi ipsi displiceo (id. iv. 13), I dissatisfy other people and myself too.
non parcam operæ (id. xvi. 13), I will spare no pains.
sic mihi persuasi (Cat. M. 2I), so I have persuaded myself.
huic legioni Cæsar confidebat maxime (B. G. i. 40), in this legion Cresar had special confidence.
ex quo efficitur hominem naturæ obedientem homini nocere non posse (Off. iii. 5), whence it appears that a man while obeying Nature cannot harm a fellow-man.

Remark. - 1. Some verbs of the same meanings take the accusative: as, juvo, adjŭvo, help; laedo, injure; jubeo, order; deficio, fail.
2. Some take the dative or accusative indifferently : as, adūlor, flatter; aemŭlor, rival; comĭtor, attend; despēro, despair; praestōlor, await; medeor, medicor, heal.
3. Some take the dative or accusative according to their meaning: as,
parti civium consulunt (Off. i. 25), they consult for a party of the citizens.
cum te consuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you.
metuens pueris (Plaut. Am. v. I), anxious for the boys.
nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. v. 2), they fear not even the gods (so also timeo.)
ei cavere volo (Fam. iii. r), I will have a care for him.
caveto omnia (id. xi. 21), beware of everything.
prospicite patriæ (Cat. iv. 2), have regard for the state. prospicere sedem senectuti (Liv. iv. 49), to provide a habitation for old age [so also providere].
nequeo mihi temperare (Plin. xviii. 6), I cannot control myself. rempublicam temperare (Tusc. i. 1), to govern the state [so also moderor].

See Lexicon, under convenio, cupio, fido (abl.), insisto, maneo, praesto, praeverto, recipio, renuntio, solvo, succedo.
b. The dative is used after the-Impersonals libet, licet; after verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male; together with the following:-gratificor, gratulor, haereo (rarely), jungo, medeor, medicor, misceo (poetic), nubo, permitto, plaudo, probo, studeo, supplico; and the phrases auctor esse, gratias agere (habere), morem gerere (morigeror), supplex (dicto audiens) esse: as,
quod mihi maxime lubet (Fam. i. 18), what most pleases me.
Di isti Segulio male faciant (id. xi. 21), may the gods send evil upon that Segulius.
mihi ipsi nunquam satisfacio (id. 17), I never satisfy myself.
virgo nupsit ei (Div. i. 46), a maiden married him.
Pompeio se gratulari putent (id. i. i), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.
sed tibi morem gessi (id. ii. 18), but I have deferred to you.
tibi permitto respondere (N. D. iii. I), I give you leave to answer.
armatus adversario maledixi (Fam. vi. 7), in arms I cursed the foe:
voluptati aurium morigerari (Or. 48), to humor the lust of the ears.
habeo senectuti maximam gratiam (Cat. M. 14), I owe old age much thanks.
maximas tibi gratias ago, I return you the warmest thanks.
c. Many verbs of the above classes take an accusative of the thing, with a dative of the person: as,
cui cum rex crucem minitaretur (Tusc. i. 43), when the king threatened him with the cross.
invident nobis optimam magistram (id. iii. 2), they grudge us our best of teachers [Nature].
frumento exercitui proviso (B. G. v. 44), when the army was supplied with corn.
puerum [vocare] cui cenam imperaret (Ros. Am. 21), to call a boy and order supper of him.
imperat oppidanis decem talenta, he exacts ten talents of the townspeople.
omnia sibi ignoscere (Vell. ii. 30), to pardon one's self everything.
d. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super - and some with circum - take the dative of the object on account of their acquired meaning (many take also the accusative, being originally transitive): as,
neque enim assentior iis (Læl. 3), for I do not agree with them. tempestati obsequi artis est (Fam. i. 9), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.
omnibus negotiis non interfuit solum sed præfuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.
pueritiæ adulescentia obrepit (Cat. M.), youth steals upon childhood.
[Archiæ] antecellere omnibus contigit (Arch. 3), it was his good fortune to outvie all.
quantum natura hominis pecudibus antecedit (Off. i. 30), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.
nos ei succedimus (Fam. vii. 3r), we succeed him.
criminibus illis pro rege se supponit reum (Deiot. 15), he takes those charges upon himself in the king's behalf.
nec unquam succumbet inimicis (id. 13), he will never bend before his foes.
illis libellis nomen suum inscribunt (Arch. 13), they put their own name to those papers.
tibi obtempera (F. ii. 7), restrain yourself.
hibernis Labienum præposuit (Cæs.), he set Labienus over the winter-quarters.
cur mihi te offers, ac meis commodis officis et obstas (Ros. Am. 38), why do you put yourself in my way, to hinder and withstand my advantage?

So excello: as,
tu longe aliis excellis (De Or. ii. 54), you far excel others.
Remark. - 1. Some of the above compounds acquire a transitive meaning, and take the accusative: as, aggredior, approach; adire, go to ; antecedo, anteeo, antegradior, precede (both cases); convenio, meet; ineo, enter; obeo, encounter; offendo, hit; oppugno, oppose; subeo, go under (take up): as,
nos oppugnat (Fam. i. r), he opposes us.
quis audeat bene comitatum aggredi, who would dare encounter a man well-attended?
munus obire (Læl. 2), to attend to a duty.
2. The adjective obvius - also the adverb obviam - with a verb takes the dative: as,
si ille obvius ei futurus non erat (Mil. 18), if he was not intending to get in his way.
m hi obviam venisti (Fam. ii. 16), you came to meet me.
e. Many compounds of $\mathrm{ab}, \mathrm{de}, \mathrm{ex}$, with adimo, take the dative (especially of persons) instead of the ablative of separation, the action being more vividly represented as done to the object affected by it : as,
vitam adulescentibus vis aufert (C. M. 19), force deprives young men of life.
nihil enim tibi detraxit senectus (id. 1), for age has robbed you of nothing.
nec mihi hunc errorem extorqueri volo (id. 23), nor do I wish this error wrested from me.
cum extorta mihi veritas esset (Or. 48), when the truth had been forced from me.

Remark. - The distinct idea of place, - and, in general, names of things, - require the ablative with a preposition; or both constructions may be used together: as,
illum ex periculo eripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged.him out of danger.
victoriam eripi sibi e manibus, that victory should be wrested from his hands.
f. Intransitive verbs governing the dative can be used in the Passive only impersonally: as,
cui parci potuit (Liv. xxi. 12), who could be spared?
non modo non invidetur illi ætati verum etiam favetur (Off. ii.
13), that age [youth] is not only not envied, but is even favored. mihi quidem persuaderi nunquam potuit (C. M. 22), I for my part could never be persuaded.
resistendum senectuti est (id. II), we must resist old age.
plaudi tibi non solere (Deiot. 12), that you are not wont to be applauded.
tempori serviendum est (Fam. ix. 7), we must serve the time.
g. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would strictly require another case with a preposition: as,
differt sermoni (Hor.), differs from prose [a sermone]. tibi certet (Virg.). may vie with you [tecum].
lateri abdidit ensem (id.), buried the sword in his side [in latere]. solstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the noontide from the flock [a pecore].
Here the poets regard the acting as done to the thing affected, for greater vividness of expression.
3. Dative of Possession. The dative is used after esse and similar words to denote the Owner: as,
est mihi liber, I have a book.

Remark. - The Genitive or a possessive with esse emphasizes the possessor; the Dative the fact of possession: as, liber est meus, the book is mine (and no one's else); est mihi liber, I have a book (among other things). This is the usual form to denote simple possession; habeo, I have, generally signifying hold, often with some secondary meaning: as,
legionem quam secum habebat (B. G. i. 8), the legion which he had with him.
domitas habere libidines (De Or.), to keep the passions under.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Compounds of esse take the dative (excepting abesse and posse; for other compounds, see above, 2, d).
b. After nomen est, and similar expressions, the name is usually put in the dative by a kind of apposition with the person: as,
puero ab inopiâ Egerio inditum nomen (Liv. i. 34), the boy was called Egerius from lis poverty.
cui Africano fuit cognomen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose surname was Africanus.
But the name may be in apposition with nomen; or in the genitive (§50, $\mathrm{I}, f$ ) : as,
cui nomen Arethusa (Verr. iv. 52), [a fount] called Arethusa. nomen Mercurì est mihi (Plaut. Am.), my name is Mercury.
4. Dative of Agency. The dative is used, after some passive forms, to denote the agent: viz.
a. Regularly with the Gerund or Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests : as,
hæc vobis provincia est defendenda (Man. 6), this province is for you to defend [to be defended by you].
mihi est pugnandum, I have to fight [i.e., the need of fighting is mine; compare miki est liber].
b. The dative is often used after perfect participles, especially when used in an adjective sense, - rarely after other parts of the verb: as,
mihi deliberatum et constitütum est (Rull. i. 8), I have deliberated and resolved.
oratori omnia quæsita esse debent (De Or. iii. 14), an orator should search everything.
acceptus mihi, acceptable to me.
c. By the poets and later writers it is used in this way after almost any passive verb : as,
neque cernitur ulli (冉. i. 440), nor is seen by any.
felix est dicta sorori (Fast. iii.), she was called happy by her sister.

Remark. - The dative is regularly used after the passive of video (usually to be rendered seem) : as, videtur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me.
5. Dative of Service. The dative is used to denote the purpose or end; often with another dative of the person or thing affected: as,
reipublicæ cladi sunt (Jug. 85), they are ruin to the State.
rati sese dîs immortalibus curæ esse (id. 75), thinking themselves to be the special care of the gods.
magno usui nostris fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men.
tertiam aciem nostris subsidio misit (id.), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.
omnia deerant quæ ad reficiendas naves erant usui (id. 29), all things were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.
Remark. - In this use the dative is nearly equivalent to a noun in apposition with the subject or object of the verb. It is common with the words cordi, $\dot{a}$ delight (lit. to the heart); dono, a gift; emolumento, a gain; usui, an advantage; vitio, a fault. The indeclinable adjective frugi is properly a dative of service.
6. Dative of Nearness, de. The dative is used after Adjectives and Adverbs, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, or for which it exists.

Such are especially words of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites: as,
nihil est tam naturæ aptum (Læl. 5), nothing is so fitted to nature.
carus omnibus exspectatusque venies ( $\mathrm{F} . \mathrm{xvi}$. ヶ), you will come loved and longed for by all.
locum divinæ naturæ æternitatique contrarium (Cat. M. 21), a point opposed to the divine nature and eternity.
nihil difficile amanti puto (Or. 10), I think nothing hard to a lover.
pompæ quam pugnæ aptius (id. 13), fitter for a procession than a battle.
consentaneum tempori et personæ (id. 22), adapted to the time and the party.
rebus ipsis par et æqualis oratio (id. 36), a speech equal and level with the subject.
Also, in poetic and colloquial use, idem, the same: as,
in eadem arma nobis (Cic.), to the same arms with us.
a. Adjectives of Usefulness or Fitness take oftener the accusative with ad, but sometimes the dative: as,
aptus ad rem militarem, fit for a soldier's duty.
locus ad insidias aptior (Mil. 20), a place fitter for lying-inad amicitiam idoneus (Læl: 17), apt to friendship. [wait. castris idoneum tocum deligit (B. G. vi. Io), he selects a suitable camping-ground.
b. Adjectives and nouns of inclination may take the accusative with in or erga: as,
comis in uxorem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2), kind to his wife.
divina bonitas erga homines (N.D.1i. 23), the divine goodness towards men.
c. The following may take also the possessive genitive:aequalis, affinis, amīcus, cognatus, communis, consanguineus, dispar, familiaris, inimicus, necessarius, par, peculiaris, proprius, superstes.

Remark. - After similis, like, with early writers, the genitive is more usual ; Cicero uses the genitive of persons, and the genitive or dative of things.
d. The following take the accusative:- propior, proximus (sometimes), propius, proxime (more commonly) - as if prepositions, like prope.
e. Verbal nouns take (rarely) the dative, like the verbs from which they are derived: as,
invidia consuli (Sall.), ill-will against the consul. ministri sceleribus (Tac.), servants of crime. obtemperatio legibus (Leg. i. 15), obedience to the laws. sibi ipsi responsio (De Or. iii. 54), an answer to himself.
7. Dative of Advantage. The dative is often required not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (dativus commodi et incommodi).

Note. - In these cases there may be only one word in the sentence; but they are distinguished by the fact that the meaning of the verb is complete without the dative, while in the preceding cases it is required to complete the sense of some particular word.
tibi aras (Pl. Merc. i. 1), you plough for yourself.
non solum nobis divites esse volumus sed liberis (Off. iii. 15),
it is not for ourselves alone but for our children that we would be rich.
res tuas tibi habe (formula of divorce), keep your groods.
laudavit mihi fratrem, he praised my brother [out of regard for me; laudavit fratrem meum would imply no such motive].
a. The dative of advantage is often used instead of the possessive genitive: as,
iter Pœnis vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. M. 20), to block
the march of the Carthaginians even with their bodies.
se in conspectum nautis dedit (Verr. vi. 33), he put himself in sight of the sailors.
versatur mihi ante oculos (id. 47), it comes before my eyes.
b. The dative of advantage is used in relations of direction, answering to the English as you go in (on the right, in the front, \&c.) : as,
oppidum primum Thessaliæ venientibus ab Epiro (B. C. iii. So), the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus.
lævâ parte sinum intrantibus (Liv. xxxvi. 26), on the left as you sail up the gulf.
c. The dative of advantage is used, rarely (by a Greek idiom), with the participle of volo or nolo, and similar words : as,
ut quibusque bellum invitis aut volentibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as they might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.
ut militibus labos volentibus esset (Jug. Ioo), that the soldiers might assume the task zuillingly.
d. Ethical Dative. The dative of the personal pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person referred to (datious ethicus: compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together." - As you Like it.) : as,
quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), pray what is Celsus doing ?
at tibi repente venit mihi Cominius (F. ix. 2), but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Cominius.
hem tibi talentum argenti (Pl. Trin. v. i), hark ye, a talent of silver.
quid tibi vis? what would you have?
avaritia senilis quid sibi velit non intelligo (Cat. M. 18), I do not understand what an old man's avarice means.

Remark. - To express for - meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of - the ablative with pro must be used, not the dative: as,
pro patriâ mori (Hor. Od. iii. 2), to die for one's country.
pro rege, lege, grege (prov.), for king, law, people. ego ibo pro te (Pl. Most.), I will go instead of you.
non pro me sed contra me (De Or. iii. 20), not for me but against me.

## 52. Accusative.

The Accusative denotes that which is immediately affected by the action of a verb (Direct Object).

1. General Use. The Accusative is the case of the direct object of a transitive verb: as,
legationem suscepit, he undertook the embassy.
Caesar vicit Pompeium, Ccesar conquered Pompey.
Remark. - The Object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its Subject in the Passive, and is put in the nominative: as,
legatio suscipitur, the embassy is undertaken.
Pompeius a Cæsare victus est, Pompey was overcome by Casar.

- a. Many verbs which express Feeling, apparently intransitive, may take an accusative in Latin: as,
fidem supplicis erubuit (Virg.), he respected [blushed at] the faith of a suppliant.
flebat mortuos vivosque, he wept the dead and living.
meum casum luctumque doluerunt (Sest.69), they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow.
horreo conscientiam (Fin. i. 16), I sluudder at conscience.
Such verbs may accordingly be used in the passive: as, ridetur ab omni conventu (Hor.), he is laughed [at] by the whole assembly.
b. Cognate Accusative. A neuter verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning (almost always modified by an adjective, or in some other manner) : as, vivere eam vitam (Cic.), to live that kind of life. ætatem tertiam vivebat, he was living his third age.
Similarly, in such phrases as vincere judicium, to gain one's case at court, and in poetic use : as,

> saltare Cyclopa (Hor. Sat. v. I), to dance the Cyclops. Bacchanalia vivere (Juv. ii. 2), to live in revels.
c. Verbs of taste, smell, \&c., take an accusative of the quality: as,
vinum redolens (Cic.), smelling of wine.
herbam mella sapiunt (Plin.), the honey tastes of grass.
d. Verbs of motion, and a few others, compounded with prepositions, especially compounds of circum and trans, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative : as,
mortem obire, to die.
consulatum ineunt (Livy iii. 6), they assume the consulship.
neminem conveni (Fam. ix. 14), I met no one.
tectum subire, to enter [go under] a place of shelter.
colloquium haud abnuit (Livy xxx. 29), he did not refuse the interview.
si insulam adîsset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.
cives qui circumstant senatum (Cat. i. 8), the citizens who throng about thie senate.
e. Constructio Praegnans. The accusative is used in certain phrases constructively, the real object of the verb being something understood: as,
coire societatem, to [go together and] form an alliance.
ferire fædus, to strike a treaty [i.e. to sanction by striking down the victim].
mare navigare, to sail the sea [i.e. to sail a ship upon the sea].
$f$. The accusative is used after the Impersonals decet, it becomes; delectat, juvat, it delights ; oportet, it behooves ; fallit, it deceives; fugit, praeterit, it escapes: as,
te non præteriit (Fam. i. 8), it has not escaped your notice.
(For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 50, 4, c.)
2. Two Accusatives. Several classes of verbs, besides the direct object, take another accusative, either in apposition or as a secondary object.
u. The accusative is used in apposition after verbs of naming, choosing, \&c. (See § 46.)
b. A second accusative is sometimes used after transitive verbs compounded with prepositions : as,

Hiberum copias trajecit (Liv. xxi. 23), he threw his forces across the Ebro.
But with these verbs the preposition is oftener repeated.
c. Verbs of asking and teaching govern two accusatives, either of which may be regarded as the direct object of the action: as,
hoc vos doceo (Cic.), I teach you this.
hoc te vehementer rogo (id.), this I urgently beg of you.
Remark. - The accusative of the thing may remain, in this construction, after a passive: as, rogatus sententiam; while the person will be, after verbs of asking, in the ablative with the preposition ab or ex: as, hoc a te rogatur. The preposition is
always used, to denote the person after peto, postulo (ab), quaero (ex or de): as,
pacem ab Romanis petere (Cæs.), to beg peace of the Romans.
d. The transitive celo, conceal, and the usually neuter lateo, lie hid, take the accusative of the person: as, hoc me celavit, he hid this from me. Pis. Cie.firo Clu. 66 latet plerosque (Plin.), it is hid from most.
3. Adverbial Accusative. The accusative is used adverbially, or for specification. This is found -
a. With many verbs usually intransitive, which take a neuter pronoun or adjective in the accusative: as,
quid moror, why do I delay?
pauca milites hortatus (Sall.), having briefly exhorted the men. dulce loquentem (Hor. Od. i. 22), sweetly speaking.
acerba tuens (Æn. ix. 793), looking cruelly.
torvum clamat (id. vii. 599), he cries harshly.
idem gloriari, to boast the same thing.
Note. - Many of these are cognate accusative.
b. In a few adverbial phrases, such as id temporis, at that time; meam vicem, on my part ; quod si, but (as to which) if.
c. In the so-called synecdochical or Greek accusative, used by the poets to denote the part affected: as,
caput nectentur (Virg.), their head shall be bound [they shall be bound about the head].
The part is strictly in apposition with the whole, and remains (as above) after the passive.

Remark. - The accusative after passive verbs used reflexively is sometimes wrongly referred to this construction: as, inutile ferrum cingitur (Virg.), he girds on the useless steel.
4. Special Uses. Peculiar uses are the following:-
a. The accusative is used in Exclamations: as,

O fortunatam rempublicam (Cic.), O fortunate republic!
O me miserum! Ah wretched me!
b. The subject of the Infinitive Mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after verbs of knowing, thinking, and telling (verba sentiendi et declarandi, § 67, 1). In all cases, the accusative is strictly the Object of the leading verb.
c. Time how long, and Distance how far, are in the accusative. (See §55.)

For the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 56.

## 53. Vocative.

The Vocative is the form of direct Address : as,
Tiberine pater, te sancte precor (Liv. ii. 103), Of father Tiber! thee, holy one, I pray.

Note. - The Vocative can hardly be called a case, as it properly has no case termination, and forms no part of the sentence.
a. Sometimes the nominative of a noun is used instead of the vocative, in apposition with the subject of the Imperative : as,
audi tu, populus Albanus (id. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.
b. Sometimes the vocative of an adjective is used instead of the nominative, where the verb is of the second person : as,
censorem trabeate salutas (Pers.), robed you salute the censor.
So in the phrase,
macte [ = magne, root maG] virtute esto (Hor.), be enlarged in manliness [bravo, well done].

## 54. Ablative.

The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions from, in, at, with, by.

Note. - The Ablative form contains three distinct cases, - the ablative proper, expressing the relation from; the locative, in ; and the instrumental, with or by. This confusion has arisen partly from phonetic decay, by which the cases have become identical in form, and partly from the development by which they have approached one another in meaning. Compare, for the first, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in $\mathbf{e}$ of the fifth declension, and the loss of the original d in the ablative; and, for the second, the phrases a parte dextra, on the right; quam ob causam, from which cause; ad famam, at (in consequence of) the report.

The relative of from includes separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison; that of in or AT, place, time, circumstance; that of WiTH or By, accompaniment, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price. It is probable that, originally, the idea of accompaniment had a separate case, which became confounded with the instrumental before the Latin was separated from the kindred tongues.

1. Ablative of Separation. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, are followed by the ablative: as,
levamur superstitione, liberamur mortis metu (Fin. i. 19), we are relieved from superstition, freed from fear of death. oculis se privavit (id. v. 29), he deprived himself of eyes.
consilio et auctoritate orbari (Cat. M. 6), to be bereft of counsel and authority.
legibus solutus, relieved from the obligation of laves.
ea philosophia quæ spoliat nos judicio, privat approbatione, omnibus orbat sensibus (Acad. ii. 19), that philosophy which despoils us of judgment, deprives of approval, bereaves of every sense.
omni Galliâ interdicit Romanos (B. G. i. 46), he [Ariovistus] bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.
ei aquâ et igni interdicitur (Vall. Pat. ii. 45), he is debarred the use of fire and water.
[cives] calamitate prohibere (Manil. 7), to keep the citizens from ruin.
carere febri (Fam. xvi. 16), to be free from fever.
voluptatibus carere (Cat. M. 3), to lack enjoyments.
non egeo medicinâ (Læl. 3), I want no physic.
magno me metu liberabis (Cat. i. 5), you will relieve me of great fear.
Ephorus calcaribus eget (Quint.), Ephorus needs the spur.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Compounds of a, ab, de, ex, take the ablative when used figuratively; but in their literal meaning, implying motion, they usually follow the rules of place from which (see $\S 55,3$ ) : as,
conatu desistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt. exsolvere se occupationibus (Fam. vii. 1), to get clear of occupation.
prius quam ea cura decederet patribus (Liv.ix. 29), before that anxiety left the fathers.
desine communibus locis (Ac. ii. 25), quit commonplaces.
abire magistratu, to leave the office.
abscedere incepto, to relinquish the undertaking.
abstinere injuriâ, to refrain from wrong.
exire ære alieno, to get out of debt.
b. More rarely, the ablative is used after verbs without a preposition to denote the place from which : as,

> cessisset patriâ (Mil. 25), he would have left his country. loco movere (Liv. i. 35), to move from its place. patriâ pellere, to drive out of the country. Galliâ arcere (Phil. v. I3), to keep out of Gaul. manu mittere, to emancipate [let go from the hand].
c. Adjectives denoting freedom and want are followed by the ablative: as,
liber curâ et angore (Fin. i. 15), free from care and anguish. vacuos curis (ib. ii. 14), void of care. urbs nuda præsidio (Att. vii. I3), the city naked of defence. immunis militiâ (Liv. i. 43), free of military service.
plebs orba tribunis (Leg. iii. 3), the people deprived of tribunes.
d. Opus and usus signifying need (with esse) are followed by the ablative (often by the ablative of the perfect participle, with or without a noun) : as,
magistratibus opus est (Leg. iii. 2), there is need of magistrates. curatore usus est (id. 4, 一 chiefly ante-classical), there is need of a manager.
properato opus esset (Mil. 19), there were need of haste.
ut opu'st facto (Ter. Heaut.), as there is need to do.
Remark. - The nominative is often used with opus in the predicate: as,
multi opus sunt boves (Varro R. R. i. 18), there is need of many cattle.
dux nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6), we need a chief and adviser.
e. Egeo and indigeo are often followed by the genitive: as, ne quis auxili egeat (B. G. vi. II), lest any require aid. quæ ad consolandum majoris ingeni et ad ferendum singularis virtutis indigent (Fạm. vi. 4), [sorrows] which for comfort need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.
Remark. - With all words of separation and want, the poets frequently, by a Greek idiom, use the genitive (see $\S 50,3, c$ ) : as,
desine mollium tandem querelarum (Hor. Od. ii. 9), cease at length from weak complaints.
abstineto irarum (id. iii. 27), abstain from wrath.
operum solutis (id. 17), free from toils.
2. Ablative of Source. The ablative is used to denote the source from which anything is derived, or the material of which it consists.
a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the ablative. Such participles are natus, satus, editus, genitus, ortus: as,

Jove natus et Maiâ (N. D. iii. 22), son of Fupiter and Maia. ortus equestri loco (Leg. Agr. i. 9), born of equestrian rank. edite regibus (Hor. Od. i..I), descendant of kings. quo sanguine cretus (Æn. ii. 74), born of what blood.

Remark. - A preposition (ab, de, ex) is usually expressed with the name of the mother, and with that of distant ancestors.
b. Rarely, the place of birth is expressed by the ablative: as, desideravit C. Felginatem Placentiâ, A. Granium Puteolis (B. C. iii. 71), he lost C. F. of Placentia, A. G. of Puteoli.
c. The ablative is used with constare and similar verbs, to denote material (but with other verbs a preposition is generally used, except by the poets) : as,
animo constamus et corpore (Fin. iv. 8), we consist of soul and body.

Note. -The ablative with consistere and contineri is locative (see below, 10).
d. The ablative of material is used with facere, fieri, and similar words: as,
quid hoc homine facias (Verr. ii. 16), What are you going to do with this man?
quid Tulliolâ meâ fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), what will become of my dear Tullia?
quid te futurum est (Verr. ii. 64), what will happen to you?
3. Ablative of Cause. The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express the cause.

Note. - The cause, in the Ablative, is considered as source, as is shown by the use of $\mathbf{a b}$, de, ex; while with ad, ob, the idea of cause arises from nearness. But occasionally it is difficult to distinguish between cause and means (which is instrumental) or circunstance (either locative or instrumental).
nimio gaudio pæne desipiebam (Fam. i. 13), I was almost a fool wilh excess of joy.
negligentiâ plectimur (Læl. 22), we are chastised for negligence. cæcus avaritiâ (Liv. v. 51), blind with avarice.
gubernatoris ars utilitate non arte laudatur (Fam. i. 13), the pilot's skill is praised as service not as skill.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The ablative is used with the adjectives dignus, indignus, and with the verbs dignor, laboro (also with ex), exsilio, exsulto, triumpho, lacrimo, ardeo.
vir patre, avo, majoribus suis dignissimus (Phil. iii. ro), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.
doleo te aliis malis laborare (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.
ex ære alieno laborare (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt.
exsultare latitiâ ac triumphare gaudio cœpit (Clu. 5), she began to exult in gladness, and triumpli in joy.
b. The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative alone ; the object exciting the emotion often by ob or propter with the accusative: as,
non ob prædam aut spoliandi cupidine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or throughl lust of plunder.
c. The ablatives causā and gratiā, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a possessive in agreement : as,
eâ causâ, on account of this; meâ causâ, for my sake.
et ipsorum et reipublicæ causâ (Manil. 2), for their own sake and the republic's.
sui purgandi gratiâ, for the sake of clearing themselves.
With possessives the use of gratia in this sense is rare.
4. Ablative of Agent. The voluntary agent after a passive verb is put in the ablative with ab (see §56,4): as,
laudatur ab his, culpatur ab illis (Hor. Sat. i. 2), he is praised by these, blamed by those.
ab animo tuo quidquid agitur id agitur a te (Tusc.i.22), whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.
a. This construction is sometimes used after neuter verbs having a passive sense : as,
perire ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.
b. The agent, considered as instrument or means, is expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive: as,
per Antiochum (Liv.), by means of Autiochus. meâ operâ (Cic.); by my means.
So per vim, as well as vi (B. G. i. 14), by force.
5. Ablative of Comparison. The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative (signifying THAN) : as, quis me beatior (Tusc. i. 4), who more blest than I?
quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 2), what more burdened than we two?
Note. - Here the object of comparison is the starting-point from which we reckon, as itself possessing the quality in some degree. That this is the true explanation is shown by the ablative in Sanskrit, and the genitive in Greek.
a. Quam with the same case as the adjective may also be used, and must regularly be used when the adjective is not either nominative or accusative. But the poets sometimes use the ablative even then: as,
pane egeo jam mellitis potiore placentis (Hor. Ep. i. Io), I want bread better than honey-cakes.
Remark. - Quam is never used in this construction with relative pronouns having a definite antecedent.
b. Particularly the idiomatic ablatives opinione, spe, solito, dicto, aequo, credibili, and justo, are used instead of a clause : as, celerius opinione (Fam..iv. 23), faster than one would think. amnis solito citatior (Liv. xxii. 19), a stream swifter than its wont.
c. Plus, minus, amplius, longius, are often used with words of measure or number without affecting their case (being in a kind of apposition) : as, b. 311.4 :quam ounitted
plus septingenti capti (Liv. xli. 12), more than 700 were taken. plus tertiâ parte interfectâ (Cæs.), more than a third part being slain.
spatium non amplius sexcentorum pedum (id.), a space of not more than 600 feet.
Note. - Alius is used by the poets with the ablative, perhaps in imitation of the Greek ; but the construction is found also in Sanskrit, and is probably original: as, alium sapienti bonoque (Hor. Ep. i. 16). Under comparatives belong the adverbs antea, antidea, postilla, postea, preterea, earlier than this, \&c. (see § $\mathbf{5 6}, 3$ ).
[For Ablative of Difference, see below, 6, e.]
6. Ablative of Means. The ablative is used to denote accompaniment, means, or instrument : as,
vultu Milonis perterritus (Mil. 15), scared by the face of Milo.
animum appellat novo nomine (Tusc. i. 10), he calls the mind by a new name.
probabilia conjecturâ sequens (id. 9), following probabilities by conjecture.
excultus doctrina (id. 2), thoroughly trained in learning.
fidibus canere (id.), to sing to the lyre.
Fauno immolare agnâ (Hor. Od. i. 4), to sacrifice to Faunus with a ewe-lamb.
pol pudere quam pigere prestat totidem literis (Plaut. Trin. 345), by Pollux better shame than blame, although the letters count the same [lit. with as many letters].
a. The ablative of accompaniment regularly takes cum (except sometimes in military phrases, and a few isolated expressions, especially in the early writers): as,
cum funditoribus sagittariisque flumen transgressi (B. G. ii.
19), having crossed the river with the slingers and archers.
subsequebatur omnibus copiis (ib.), he followed close with all
his forces. [out.
hoc presidio profectus est (Verr. ii. 34), with this convoy he set

Remark. - Misceo and jungo, with their compounds, may take the ablative of accompaniment, without cum, or sometimes the dative.
b. Words of contention. require cum (but often take the dative in poetry): as,
armis cum hoste certare (Cic.), to fight with the enemy in arms. est mihi tecum certamen (id.), I have a controversy with you. solus tibi certat Amyntas (Ecl. v. 8), Amyntas alone vies with you.
c. The ablative of means is used with words of filling, abounding, and the like: as,

Deus bonis omnibus explevit mundum (Univ. 3), God has filled the world with all good things.
dialecticis imbutus (Tusc. i. 7), tinctured with logic.
circumfusi caligine (id. 19), overspread with darkness.
opimus prædâ (Verr. i. 50), rich with spoil.
vita plena et conferta voluptatibus (Sext. 10), a life full and crowded with delights.
Forum Appî differtum nautis (Hor. Sat. i. 5), Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.
Remark. - These verbs and adjectives take the genitive in the poets by a Greek idiom : as,
terra scatet ferarum (Lucr. v. 41), the land abounds in wild creatures.
explere ultricis flammæ (尤. ii. 586), fill with avenging flame. Compleo, impleo, and plenus, often take the genitive in prose.
d. The deponents utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the ablative: as,
utar vestrâ benignitate (Cic.), I will avail myself of your kindness.
Numidæ plerumque lacte et ferinâ carne vescebantur (Jug. 88), the Numidians fed mostly on milk and game.
Potior also takes the genitive, as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to get the power. In early Latin, the accusative is sometimes found with these verbs.
e. The ablative is used with comparatives and words implying comparison, to denote the degree of difference: as,
duobus milibus plures, more numerous by 2000.
quinque milibus passuum distat (Liv.), it is five miles distant.
Remarks. - This use is especially frequent with the ablatives eo ... quo; quanto ... tanto (see § 22, c) : as,
quo minus cupiditatis eo plus auctoritatis (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed the more weight.
7. Ablative of Quality. The ablative is used, with an adjective or limiting genitive, to denote manner and quality: as, animo meliore, of better mind. more hominum, after the manner of men.
non quæro quantâ memoriâ fuisse dicatur (Tusc. i. 24), I do not ask how great a meninory he is said to have had.
a. The ablative of description (with adjectives) is always used to denote physical characteristics (other qualities may be in the genitive): as,
vultu sereno, of calm face.
capillo sunt promisso (B. G. v. 14), they have long hanging locks.
b. The ablative of manner more commonly takes cum, unless it has a modifying adjective: as,
minus cum curâ (Plaut.), less carefully.
hoc onus feram studio et industriâ (Rosc. Am. 4), I will bear this burden with pains and diligence.

But words of manner, modo, ratione, viā, \&c. - with such expressions as silentio, in silence, injuriā, wrongfully - hardly ever have cum.
8. Ablative of Price. The price of a thing (or that which is given in exchange) is put in the ablative : as,
agrum vendidit sestertiam sex milibus, he sold the field for 6000 sesterces.
exsilium patriâ sede mutavit (Q.C. iii. 8), he exchanged his native land for exile.
a. Certain genitives of Quantity are used to denote indefinite value. Such genitives are magni, parvi, tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris: as,

> est mihi tanti (Cat. ii. 7 ), it is zvorth my while. meâ magni interest, it is of great consequence to me.

Remark. - With verbs of buying and selling, the ablative of price (magno, \&c.) must be used, except the following genitives : tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris.
b. The genitive of certain nouns is used in the same way: as, non flocci faciunt (Pl. Trin.), they care not a straw.
The genitives so used are nihili, nothing; assis, a farthing; flocci, a lock of wool, and a few others (see § 50, 1, i).
[For the Ablative of Penalty, see § 50, 4, $b$, Rem.]
9. Ablative of Specification. The ablative denotes that in respect to which anything is said to be or be done, or in accordance with which anything happens: as,
virtute præcedunt (B. G. i. I), they excel in courage.
incluta bello mœnia (En. ii. 24), walls famous in war. claudus altero pede (Nep. Ages.), lame of one foot.
linguâ hæsitantes, voce absoni (De Or. i.), hesitating in speech, harsh in voice.
tanta caritas patriæ est, ut eam non sensu nostro sed salute ipsius metiamur (Tusc. i. 37), such is our love of country, that we measure it not by our own feeling, but by her own welfare.
10. Locative Ablative. The ablative of the place where is retained in many figurative expressions: as,
jure peritus, skilled in lazv [compare Sanskrit usages].
pendemus animis (Tusc. i. 40), we are in suspense of mind.
socius periculis vobiscum adero (Jug. 85), I will be present with you a companion in dangers.
premit alto corcie dolorem (£n. i. 209), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.
confertâ legione (B. G. iv. 33), as they were in close order.
pedibus prœliantur (id. 34), they fight on foot.
quibus rebus (id. 35), under these circumstances.
d. The verbs acquiesco, delector, laetor, gaudeo, glorior, nitor, sto, maneo, fido (confido), consisto, contineor, - with the verbals fretus, contentus, laetus, - are followed by the ablative: as,
spe niti (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope,
prudentiâ fidens (Off. i. 33), trusting in prudence.
lætari bonis rebus (Læl. 13), to rejoice in good things.
Remark. - The above verbs also take the preposition in.
b. Ablative Absolute. A noun or pronoun, with a participle, is put in the ablative, to define the time or circumstances of an action (compare § 72). An adjective, or another noun, may take the place of the participle.
vocatis ad se undique mercatoribus (B. G. iv. 20), having called to him the traders from all quarters.
exiguâ parte æstatis reliquâ (id.), when but a small part of the summer was left.
M. Messalâ et M. Pisone consulibus (id. i. 2), in the consulship of Messala and Piso.
Note. - In this use the noun is equivalent to the Subject, and the participle to the Predicate, of a subordinate clause; and so they should
generally be translated. But, as the copula esse has no participle in Latin, a noun or adjective is often found alone as predicate, while the participle is found, in this construction, in Sanskrit and Greek. The noun originally denotes circumstance, considered as place or time (locative); then, being modified by a participle, it becomes fused with it into a single idea, equivalent to that contained in a subordinate clause (compare ab urbe condita, lit, from the city built).
c. Sometimes a participle or adjective (under the construction of the ablative absolute) is put in agreement with a phrase or clause, or is used adverbially : as,
incerto quid peterent, since it was uncertain what they sought. auspicato (Tac. H. i. 84), after taking the auspices [the auspices having been taken].
consulto et cogitato (Off i. 8), on purpose and with reflection [the matter having been deliberated and thought on].
sereno (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky.
d. The ablative is often used to denote the place where, of the time when (see § 55, 1; 3,f).
[For the government of the Ablative by Prepssitions, see § 56.]

## 55. Time and Place.

1. Time. Time when (or within which) is put in the Ablative; time how long the Accusative: as,
constitutâ die, on the set day.
quotâ horâ? at what ơclock?
tribus proxumis annis (Jug. II), within the last three years.
dies continuos triginta, for a month together.
paucis post diebus (or paucos post dies), after a few days.
[Here diebus is the ablative of difference ( $\$ 54,6, e$ ), and post an adverb (§ 56, 2, d).]

Note. - The ablative of time is locative; the accusative is the same as that of extent of space (see below), heri vespari).
a. The use of a preposition gives greater precision and clearness : as,
in diebus proximis decem (Sall.), within the next ton days. ludi per decem dies (Cat. iii. 8), games lasting ten days.
b. The ablative is rarely used to express duration of time: as, milites quinque horis præelium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours. [This use is locative.]
2. Space. Extent of space is put in the Accusative: as, fossas quindecim pedes latas (B. G. vii. 72), trenches 13 feet broad.
Note. - This accusative is the object through or over which the action takes place, and is kindred with the accusative of the end of motion.
a. Measure is often expressed as a quality by the Genitive (§50, $1, h$ ): as,
vallo pedum duodecim (B. G. ii. 30), in a rampart of 12 feet [in height].
b. Distance is put in the Accusative (as extent of space), or Ablative (as degree of difference) : as,
quinque dierum iter abest (Liv. $x x x .29$ ), it is distant five days' march.
triginta milibus passuum infra eum locum (B. G.vi.35), thirty miles below that place.
tanto spatio secuti (B. G. iv. 35), having follozved over so much ground.
3. Place. To express relations of Place, prepositions are necessary, except with the names of Towns and small Islands ; except also with domus, rus, and a few other words in special relations.

Note. - Originally these relations were expressed with all words by the cases alone, - the Accusative denoting the end of motion as in a certain sense the object of the action; and the Ablative (in its proper meaning of separation) denoting the place from which. For the place where there was a special case, the Locative, the form of which was partially retained and partially merged in the Ablative (see Note, p. 134). The Prepositions (originally Adverbs) were added to define more exactly the direction of the motion, and by long usage at length became necessary, except in the cases given above.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The name of the place from which is in the Ablative: as, Româ profectus, having set out from Rome. rure reversus, having returned from the country.
b. The name of the place to which is in the Accusative: as,

Romam rediit, he returned to Rome. rus ibo, I shall go into the country.
Remark. - The old construction is retained in the phrases exsequias ire, to attend a funeral ; infitias ire, to make denial; pessum ire, to go to ruin; pessum dare, to undo; venum dare (vendere), to set to sale; venum ire, to be set to sale;-foras, out of doors; and the Supine in um (see § 74, r).
c. The name of the place where takes the Locative form, which in the first and second declensions singular is the same as the genitive ; in the plural, and in the third declension, the same as the dative: as,

Romae, at Rome; Corinthi, at Corinth; Lanuvi, at Lanuvium; Karthagini, at Carthage; Athenis, at Athens; Curibus, at Cures.

Remark. - In names of the third declension the ablative is often found, especially where the metre requires it in poetry : as,

Tibure vel Gabiis (Hor. Ep. ii. 2), at Tibur or Gabii.
d. The words domi (rarely domui), at home; belli, militiae (in contrast to domi), abroad in military service; humi, on the ground; ruri, in the country; foris, out-of-doors; terrā marique, by land and sea, are used like names of towns, without a preposition; also heri, vesperi, infelici arbori (Liv.).
e. A possessive, or alienus, may be used with domus in this construction; but when it is modified in any other way, a preposition is generally used: as,
domi suæ (Mil. 7), at his own house.
in M. Læcæ domum (Cat. i. 4), to Laca's house.
$f$. The ablative is used without a preposition to denote the place where, in many general words - as loco, parte - regularly; frequently with nouns when qualified by adjectives (regularly where totus is used) ; and in poetry in any case : as,
quibus loco positis (De Or. iii. 38), when these are put in their places.
quâ parte victi erant (Att. ix. II), on the side where they were. beaten.
se oppido tenet (id.), keeps himself within the town.
mediâ urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the midst of the city.
totâ Siciliâ (Verr. iv. 23), throughout Sicily.
litore curvo (Æn. iii. 16), on the bending shore.
Remark. - To denote the neighborhood of a place (to, from, in the neighborhood), prepositions must be used.
4. The way by which is put in the Ablative (of instrument) : as,
viâ breviore equites præmisi (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.
Ægeo mari trajecit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Aggean sea.

## 56. Use of Prepositions.

1. Prepositions govern either the Accusative or Ablative.
a. The following govern the Accusative:-ad, adversus, adversum, ante, apud, circa, or circum, circiter, cis, citra, contra, erga, extra, infra, inter, intra, juxta, ob, penes, per, pone, post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, supra, trans, ultra, versus.
b. The following govern the Ablative:-a, ab, abs, absque, coram, cum, de, e, ex, prae, pro, sine, tenus.
c. In and sub take the Accusative when they denote motion; when rest, the Ablative: as;
in contionem venit (Off. iii. ni), he came into the meeting.
dixit. in contione (ib.), he said in the meeting.
sub jugum mittere (Cæs.), to send under the yoke.
sub monte consedit (id.), he halted below the hill.
Remarik. - The verbs of placing, - such as pono and its compounds (except impono), loco, statuo, \&c., - though implying motion, take in Latin the construction of the place in which: as,
qui in sede ac domo collocavit (Parad. iii. 2), who put one into his place and home.
d. When it means concerning, super takes the Ablative; otherwise the Accusative (unless in poetry): as,
hac super re (Cic.), concerning this thing. super culmina tecti (Virg.), above the house-top.
e. After subter, the Accusative is used, except sometimes in poetry: as,

> subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle. subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.
f. In Dates, the phrase ante diem (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may be governed by a preposition: as,
is dies erat a.d. quintum kalendas Aprilis (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April [March 28].
in a.d. v. kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 3), to the 5th day before the calends of November [Oct. 28].
xv. kal. Sextilis, the 15th day before the calends of Augrust (July 18). [Full form, quinto die ante.]
g. Tenus (which follows its noun) regularly takes the Ablative: as,

Tauro tenus (Mil. 13), as far as Taurus. capulo tenus (※n. v. 55), up to the hilt.

Remark. - Tenus is found especially with the feminine of the adjective pronouns, in an adverbial sense: as, hactenus, hitherto; quatenus, so far as, \&c.
Sometimes it takes the Genitive : as,
Corcyræ tenus (Liv. xxv. 24), as far as Corcyra.
2. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs : thus -
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The adverbs pridie, postridie, propius, proxime, usque - also (less frequently) the adjectives propior and proximus may be followed by the Accusative : as,
pridie Nonas Junias (Cic.), the day before the Nones of Fune (June 4).
postridie ludos (id.), the day after the games.
b. The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may take the Ablative: as,
palam populo (Liv.), in the presence of the people.
c. The adverb clam may take either case (very rare) : as, clam matrem suam (Plaut.), unbeknown to the mother. clam mihi (id.), in secret from me. clam vobis (Cæs.), without your knowledge.
d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as Adverbs. This is especially the case with ante and post, in relations of time; adversus, contra (on the other hand), circiter, prope, and, in general, those ending in $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$. Clam and versus are often excluded from the list of Prepositions.
[For the use of prepositions in Composition, see § 42, 3.]
3. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, - several words, or even clauses, sometimes coming between : as,
neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.
Such words are ante, prius, post, pridie, postridie.
4. The ablative, with a or ab, is regularly used after passive verbs to denote the Agent, if a person, or if spoken of as a person $(\S 54,4):$ as,
jussus a patre, bidden by his father.

Remark. - The ablative of the agent (which requires the preposition) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of instrument, which stands by itself: as,
occisus gladio, slain by a sword; but, occisus ab hoste, slain by an enemy.
5. The following prepositions sometimes follow their noun : ad, citra, circa, contra, inter, penes, propter, ultra, tenus ; e, de, juxta.
[For the so-called Dative of the Agent, with the Gerundive, see §§ $51,4, a$.$] .$

## III. Syntax of the Verb.

## 57. Use of Moods.

 (See § 24.)The Moods of a Latin Verb are the Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.

Note. - The Infinitive is not strictly a mood, being only the oblique case of a noun ; but it is most conveniently treated along with the moods.

1. Indicative. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions; and is used when no special construction requires one of the others.
2. Subjunctive. The Subjunctive is used in special constructions, both in dependent and independent clauses, viz.: -
a. Independent Clauses. 1. In independent clauses, the subjunctive is used to denote an Exhortation or Command (hortatory subjunctive); a Wish (optative subjunctive) ; a Concession (concessive subjunctive); or a Doubtful Question (dubitative subjunctive).

- 2. It is also used to denote the conclusion of a Conditional sentence (apodosis), which is, grammatically, an independent clause, though logically depending on a condition expressed or implied (see $\$ \S 59,60$ ).
b. Dependent Clauses. In dependent clauses, the subjunctive is used to denote a Purpose (§ 64), or a Result (§ 65). It
is used, idiomatically, in Temporal Clauses (§ 62), in Indirect Discourse (§ 67), in Indirect Questions (id.), and in Intermediate Clauses (§ 66).
[For Subjunctive after Partickes of Comparison, see § 61.]
[For the so-called Subjunctive of Cause, see § 63.]
Note. - The Present Subjunctive contains two distinct forms, the Subjunctive and Optative of the "Indo-European" tongue. Both these forms had originally a future meaning; and from these future meanings all the uses of this mood in Latin are developed. The suljunctive proper was originally a Present, denoting continued action, which became Future in sense (compare conative present and present for future, $\S 58,2, b$ ) ; and afterwards, in many uses, Imperative (compare future for imperative). The optative contains, in composition, a past tense of the root I (whence eo, $\varepsilon i \mu, g_{0}$ ) ; so that it had a futurum in proterito meaning, which developed into a conditional future, and into an expressive of wish and command; and, in Latin, lost its connection with past time.

The other tenses of the Subjunctive are compounds formed (in Latin alone) to remedy the confusion of optative and subjunctive. The Subjunctive has, therefore, the uses of both the optative and subjunctive of the cognate languages.
3. Hortatory Subjunctive. The subjunctive is used in the Present - less commonly in the Perfect - to express a command or exhortation : as,
hos latrones interficiamus (B. G. vii. 38), let us kill these robbers.
aut bibat aut abeat (Tusc. v. 41 ), let him quaff or quit.
caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verecundiæ (Off. i. 34), let them shun cxcess and cherish modesty.
Epicurus hoc viderit (Acad. ii. 7.), let Epicurus look to this.
his quoque de rebus pauca dicantur (Off. i. 35), of this, too, let a few words be said.

Note. - The Perfect represents an action as complete in the future; but in most cases it can hardly be distinguished from the Present.
a. The Second Person is used only of an indefinite subject, except in prohibition, in early Latin, and in poetry : as,
injurias fortunæ, quas ferre nequeas, defugiendo relinquas (Tusc. v. 41), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, you will leave behind by flight.
nihil ignoveris (Mur. 3I), pardon nothing.
amicus populo Romano sis (Liv. xxvi. 50), be a friend to the Roman people.
b. In prohibitions, the Perfect is more common than the Present: as,
hoc facito: hoc ne feceris (Div. ii. 6I), thou shalt do this: thou shalt not do that.
nec mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 7), do not say that to me. ne territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), be not terrified.
c. The hortatory subjunctive is used - sometimes with modo, modo ne, tantum, tantum ne, or ne alone - to denote a proviso: as,
valetudo modo bona sit (Brut. 16), if only the health be good.
aliam condicionem tantummodo æquam (Jug. 79), another condition, provided it were just.
modo ne sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 30), provided only he be not of brutish stock.
tantummodo Gnæus noster ne Italiam relinquat (Q. F. iii. 9), if only Pompey will not forsake Italy.
manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cat. M. 7), old men retain their mind if they only retain their zeal and diligence.
d. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an obligation in past time, - the latter more clearly representing the time for the action as past: as,
moreretur, inquies (Rab. Post.), he should have died you will say.
ne poposcisses (Att. ii. I), you should not have asked.
potius diceret (Off. iii. 22), he should rather have said.
saltem aliquid de pondere detraxisset (Fin. iv. 20), at least he should have taken something from the weight.
4. Optative Subjunctive. The subjunctive is used to denote a Wish, - the Present, a wish conceived as possible; the Imperfect, an unaccomplished one in the present; the Pluperfect, one unaccomplished in the past : as,
ita vivam (Att. v. 15), so may I live [as true as I live].
ne vivam si scio (id. iv. 16), I wish I may not live if I know.
di te perduint (Deiot.), the gods confound thee!
valeant, valeant, cives mei; valeant. sint incolumes (Mil. 34), farewell [he says], my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.
a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated: as,
male di tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), may the gods do thee a mischief.
b. The particles uti (ut), utinam, $\mathbf{O} \mathbf{s i}$, often precede the Subjunctive of wish: as,
falsus utinam vates sim (Liv. xxi.), I wish'I may be a false prophet.
ut pereat positum rubigine telum (Hor. Sat. ii. r), may the unused weapon perish with rust.
utinam me mortuum vidisses (Q.Fr. i. 3), would you had seen me dead.

Note. - In this use, the particle has no effect on the grammatical construction, except that $\mathbf{O}$ si is probably a Protasis.
c. Velim with the present subjunctive, and vellem with the imperfect or pluperfect - with their compounds - (strictly, conditional sentences with the wish in a dependent clause) are often used instead of a proper optative subjunctive: as,
de Menedemo vellem verum fuisset, de reginâ velim verum sit (Att. iv. 16), about Mendemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I hope it may be.
nollem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. IO), I wish the time never had come.
5. Concessive Subjunctive. The subjunctive is used to express a concession, either with or without ut, quamvis, quamlibet; and similar words.

Remark. - In this use, the Present refers to future or indefinite time; the Imperfect to present or past time, - the concession being impliedly, untrue; the Perfect to past time or completed future time; the Pluperfect to completed action in past time (usually untrue) : as,
nemo is unquam fuit: ne fuerit (Or. 29), there never was such a one you will say: granted.
quamvis comis in amicitiis tuendis fuerit (Fin. ii. 25), amiable as he may have been in keeping his friendships.
sit Scipio clarus, ornetur Africanus, erit profecto aliquid loci nostræ (Cat. iv. 10), let Scipio be glorious, and Africanus honored, yet surely there will be some room for our fame.
dixerit hoc idem Epicurus . . . non pugnem cum homine (Fin. v. 27), though Epicurus may have said the same, I would not contend with the man.
ne sit summum malum dolor, malum certe est (Tusc. ii. 5), granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.
fuerit aliis: tibi quando esse cœpit (Verr. i. 4r), suppose he was [so] to otherş, when did he begin to be to you?
6. The Present, and rarely the Perfect Subjunctive, are used in questions implying doubt, indignation, or an impossibility of the thing being done (dubitative subjunctive): as,
sed quid faciamus (Att. viii. 23), but what can we do?
quid loquar plura (Pis. 32), why should I say more?
quid hoc homine faciatis (Verr. ii. 16), what are you to do with
this fellow?
cui ego exspectem dum tabellæ diribeantur (Pis. 40), what, shall I wait till the ballots are counted?
quis enim celaverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

The Imperfect denotes the same idea in past time: as,
an ego non venirem (Phil. ii. 2), what, should I not have come? quid dicerem (Att. vi. 3), what was I to say?
\%. Imperative. The Imperative is used in Commands; also, by early writers and poets, in Prohibitions: as,
consulite vobis, prospicite patriæ, conservate vos (Cat. iv. 2), have care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.
[much. nimium ne crede colori (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not complexion overad me fac venias (Fam. xiv. 4), do come to me.
a. Prohibitions are regularly (in classical Latin) expressed by ne with the second person singular of the Perfect Subjunctive; by noli with the Infinitive; or by cave (colloquially fac ne) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive: as,
ne territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), be not frightened.
noli putare (Brut. 33), do not suppose.
cave faxis (Ter. Heaut. 187), do not do it.
fac ne quid aliud cures (Fam. xvi. 11), pray attend to nothing else.
b. In early Latin, in poetry, and in general prohibitions, the Present Subjunctive is also used: as,

Albi ne doleas (Hor. Od. i. 33), grieve not, Albius. denique isto bono utare dum adsit : cum absit ne requiras (Cat. M. 10), in short, use this grood while present; when wanting, do not regret it.

Remark. - The third person of the Imperative is antiquated or poetic.
ollis salus populi suprema lex esto (id.), the safety of the people shall be their first law.
justa imperia sunto, iisque cives modeste parento (Leg. iii. 3), let the commands be just, and let the citizens strictly obcy them.
c. The Future Imperative is used where there is a distinct reference to the future time: viz.

1. In connection with a future or future-perfect ;
2. With adverbs or other expressions of time;
3. In general directions, as Precepts, Statutes, Edicts, and Wills: as,
cum valetudini consulueris, tum consulito navigationi (Fam. xvi. 4), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.
rei suæ ergo ne quis legatus esto (Leg.), no one shall be ambassador in his own affair.

Remark. - The future form of the imperative is regularly used of scio, memini, and habeo (in the sense of consider) : as,
filiolo me auctum scito (Att. i. 2), learn that I am blessed with a little boy.
sic habeto, mi Tiro (Fam. xvi. 4), so understand it, my good Tiro.
de paliâ memento, amabo (Pl. Asin.), pray, dear, remember the gown.
d. The Future is sometimes used for the imperative; and quin (why not?) with the present indicative may have the force of an imperative: as,
si quid acciderit novi, facies ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.
quin accipis? (Ter. Heaut. iv. 7), here, take it.
8. Infinitive. The Infinitive denotes the action of the verb as an abstrcict noun, differing, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points:- (1) It admits, in many cases, of the distinction of tense ; (2) It is modified by adverbs and not by adjectives; (3) It governs the case of its verb; (4) It is only used in special constructions.

Note. - The Infinitive is properly the Dative case of an abstract noun, denoting Purpose, which has developed in Latin, in many cases, into a substitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use. Its Subject is, strictly, the Object of some other verb, which has become attached to it: as, jubeo te valere, lit., 1 command you for being well (i.e. that you may be well) ; just as, in Purpose-clauses, the purpose becomes the object of command (compare Purpose Clauses, § 64).
a. Infinitive as Subject. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used as the Subject of a verb (or in predicate apposition), and, rarely, as the Object: as,
nihil est aliud [hominem] bene et beate vivere, nisi honeste et recte vivere (Parad. i.6), to live well and happily, is nothing else than to live honorably and rightly.
invidere non cadit in sapientem (Tusc. iii. 10), envy does not belong to a wise man.
est humanitatis vestræ . . . prohibere (Man. 7), it is for your humanity to hold safe, \&c.
nam istuc ipsum non esse cum fueris miserrimum puto (Tusc. i. 6), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.
In this use, the infinitive is found chiefly with esse and impersonal verbs, - rarely with others.
b. The infinitive is used with many Impersonal verbs and expressions, partly as subject and partly as complement (see Note below) : as,
te abundare oportet præceptis (Off. i. 1), you must abound in maxims.
id primum in poetis cerni licet (De Or. iii. 7), this may be seen first in poets.
reperiebat quid dici opus esset (Brut. 59), he found what needed to be said.
hæc prescripta servantem licet magnifice vivere (Off. i. 26), one who observes these precepts may live nobly.
proponis quam sit turpe me adesse (Att. ix. 2), you make it clear how base it is for me to be present.
c. Complementary Infinitive. The infinitive, without a subject, is used with verbs which require another action of the same subject to complete their meaning. Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like: as,
hoc queo dicere (Cat. M. 10), this I can say. mitto quærere (Rosc. Am.), I omit to ask.
vereor laudare presentem (N. D. i. 21), I fear to praise in one's oro ut matures venire (Att. iv. 1), pray make laste to come.
Note. - The mark of this construction is that no Subject of these infinitives is admissible or conceivable; though the same verbs, in other senses, may take an infinitive with a subject.
d. The infinitive is used optionally with many verbs which also take a subjunctive clause (§70): such are those signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like. The subject is usually, though not always, omitted, when it is the same as that of the principal verb: as,
quos tueri debent deserunt (Off. i. 9), they forsake those whom they should protect.
Atticos volo imitari (Brut. 82), I wish to imitate the Attics.
student excellere (Off. i. 32), they aim to excel.
istum exheredare in animo habebat (Rosc. Am. 18), he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.
cupio me esse clementem [= cupio esse clemens] (Cat. i. 2), $I$ desire to be merciful.
Some of these verbs - jubeo and veto regularly - may take the infinitive with another subject: as,
signa inferri jubet (Liv. xlii. 59), he orders the standards to be borne forward.
Note. - This construction, though in many cases different from the two preceding, shades off imperceptibly into them. In none of the uses is the infinitive strictly Subject or Object; but its meaning is developed from the original one of purpose. Hence the distinction between the uses is not always clearly marked.
e. With Subject Accusative. The infinitive, with subject accusative, is regularly used after verbs of knowing, thinking, telling, and the like (verba sentiendi et declarandi, § 67, I): as,
dicit montem ab hostibus teneri (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy.
Note. - The Infinitive may thus represent, in indirect discourse, a finite verb in direct discourse, admitting all the variations of the verb except number and person (see § 67).

Remark. -1. With verbs which govern the dative, the subject of the action may be in the dative. With licet regularly, and with others rarely, the predicate may also be in the dative: as,
nemini certare cum eo necesse fuit (Liv. xxi. in), there was need for none to strive with him.
non libet mihi deplorare vitam (Cat. M. 23), I have no desire to bewail life.
[ gent.
mihi negligenti esse non licet (Att. i. 17), I must not be negli-
non est stantibus omnibus necesse dicere (Marc. 11), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.
expedit bonas esse vobis (Ter. Heaut. ii. 4), it is for your interest to be grood.
So with the dativus commodi: as,
quid est tam secundum naturam quam senibus emori (Cat. M. 19), what is so according to nature as for old men to die?
2. When the subject of the infinitive is not expressed, a predicate (except after impersonals) takes the case of the subject: as,
si esset in iis fides in quibus summa esse debebat (Fam. i. r), if there were faith in those in whom it ought to be greatest.
So, by a Greek idiom, even in Indirect Discourse : as,
vir bonus et sapiens ait esse paratus (Hor. Ep. i. 7), a good and wise man says he is prepared, \&c.
sensit medios delapsus in hostes (世n. ii. 377), he found limself fallen amongst the foe.
$f$. In a few cases, the infinitive retains its original meaning of purpose: viz.

1. With habeo, do, ministro, in isolated passages: as, tantum habeo polliceri (Fam. i. 5), so much I have to promise.
2. After the adjectives paratus, suetus, and their compoinds. id quod parati sunt facere (Quin. 2), which they are ready to do.
3. In poetry and later writers with any verb or adjective: as, durus componere versus (Hor. Sat. i. 4), harsh in composing furit te reperire (Hor. Od. i. 15), he rages to find thee. [verse. cantari dignus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sumo.

Remark. - Rarely, in poetry, the infinitive is used to denote result.
g. The infinitive, with subject-accusative, may be used in Exclamations (compare § 52, 4) : as,
mene incepto desistere victam (Æn. i. 37), what ! I desist beaten from my purpose?
te in tantas ærumnas propter me incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas! that you should fall into such grief for me.
Note. - This construction is elliptical: that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of Saying, \&c., appears, or perhaps is thought of (compare the French dire que).
$\boldsymbol{h}$. Historical Infinitive. The Infinitive is often used for the tenses of the Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative : as,
tum Catilina polliceri novas tabulas (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts [clean ledgers].
ego instare ut mihi responderet (Verr. ii. 77), I pressed him to answer.
This usage is most frequent where many verbs are crowded together in rapid narrative : as,
pars cedere, alii insequi; neque signa neque ordines servare; ubi quemque periculum ceperat, ibi resistere ac propulsare; arma, tela, equi, viri, hostes atque cives permixti; nihil consilio neque imperio agi; fors omnia regere (Jug. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook, there each would stand and fight; weapons, missiles, horses, men, foe and friend, were mixed; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.

## 58. Use of Tenses.

The Tenses are the Present, Imperfect, Future (of incomplete action), and the Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect (of completed action).

1. Tenses of the Indicative. The tenses of the Indicative denote absolute time ; that is, present, past, or future, in reference to the Speaker.
2. Present. The Present denotes an action or state, as now existing, as incomplete, or as indefinite without reference to time: as,
agitur salus sociorum (Manil. 2), the safety of our allies is at stake.
Senatus hæc intellegit, consul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. I), the Senate knows this, the consul sees, yet this man lives.
nihil est victoriâ dulcius (Verr. vi. 26), nothing is sweeter than victory.
tu actionem instituis, ille aciem instruit (Mur. 9), you arrange a case, he arrays an army.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The present, with expressions of duration of time, denotes an action begun in the past but continuing in the present: as,
patimur jam multos annos'(Verr. vi. 48), we suffer now these many years.
anni sunt octo cum ista causa versatur ( Clu .30 ), it is now eight years that this case has been in hand.
b. Conative Present. The present sometimes denotes an action not completed at all, but only attempted: as,
Quintus frater Tusculanum venditat (Att. i. 14), my brother Quintus is trying to sell the place at Tusculum.
(So the present Infinitive and Participle.)
c. The present, especially in colloquial language, is sometimes used for the future: as,
imusne sessum (De Or. iii. 5), shall we take a seat?
ecquid me adjuvas? (Clu. 26), woon't you give me a little help?
in jus voco te. non eo. non is? (Pl. As. 480), I summon you to the court. I won't go. You won't?
si reus condemnatur, desinent homines dicere his judiciis pecuniam plurimum posse (Verr. i. 2), if the prisoner is convicted, men will no longer say that moncy is the chief power in the courts.
(See also under cum, antequam, dum § 62.)
d. Historical Present. The present in lively narrative is often used for the historical perfect: as,
affertur nuntius Syracusas; curritur ad prætorium; Cleomenes, quamquam nox erat, tamen in publico esse non audet; includit se domi (Verr. vi. 35), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to head-quarters; Cleomenes, though it was night, does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.
e. The present is regularly used with dum, while, though referring to past time: as,
hæc dum aguntur, interea Cleomenes jam ad Elori litus pervenerat (id.), while this is going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Elorum.

But when the time referred to is contrasted with some other, the past tenses must be used : as,
nec enim dum eram vobiscum animum meum videbatis (Cat. M. 22), for even when I was with you, you did not see my soul.
$f$. The present is regularly used of writers whose works are extant: as,

Epicurus vero ea dicit (Tusc.ii. 7), but Epicurus says suck things.
apud illum Ulysses lamentatur in vulnere (id. 21), in him [Sophocles] Ulysses bewails over his wound.
3. Imperfect. The Imperfect denotes an action or condition continued or repeated in past time: as,
hunc audiebant antea (Man. 5), they used to hear him before.
Socrates ita censebat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 30), Socrates thought so [habitually] and so he spoke [then].
C. Duilium redeuntem a cenâ senem sæpe videbam (C.M. I3), $I$ would often see Duilius, then old, coming home from dinner.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Hence the imperfect is used in descriptions: as,
erant omnino itinera duo . . . mons altissimus impendebat (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhung.
7. The imperfect is sometimes used in the sense of a pluperfect and imperfect combined (see above, 2, a) : as,
copias quas diu comparabant (Fam. i. 13), the forces which they had long been getting ready.
c. The imperfect sometimes denotes an action merely attempted, but never accomplished (compare conative present, $2, b$ ) : as,
in exsilium eiciebam quem jam ingressum esse in bellum videbam (Cat. ii. 6), was I sending into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?
consules sedabant tumultus (Liv. iii. 15), the consuls busied themselves to calm the tumult.
si licitum esset veniebant (Verr. vi. 49), they were coming if it had been allowed.
d. The imperfect is sometimes used to express a certain surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: as,

O tu quoque hic aderas, Phormio (Ter. Ph. v. 6), O, you are here too, Phormio.
ehem pater mi, tu hic eras? (Pl. id. v. 7), what, you here, father?
ah miser! quantâ laborabas Charybdi (Hor. Od. i. 27), unkappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it].
$e$. The imperfect is often used in narration by the comic poets, where later writers would employ the perfect: as,
ad amicum Calliclem quoi rem aibat mandâsse hic suam (Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.
præsagibat animus frustra me ire quom exibam domo (Aul. 222), my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.

The Impérfect Indicative in Apodosis, contrary to fact, regularly refers to present time (see § 59, 3, d).
4. Future. The Future denotes an action or condition that will occur hereafter.
[For Future instead of the Imperative, see § 57, 7, d.]
5. Perfect. The Perfect definite denotes an action as now completed; the Perfect historical, as having taken place indefinitely, in past time : as,
ut ego feci, qui Græcas litteras senex didici (C. M. 8), as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.
tantum bellum extremâ hieme apparavit, infeunte vere suscepit, mediâ æstate confecit (Man. 12), so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.
[For the difference between the Perfect and Imperfect in narration, see Note, page 53.]
a. The perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that something no longer exists: as,
fuit ista quondam in hac re publicâ virtus (Cat. i. i), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.
fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium (Æn. ii. 325), we were Trojans, Ilium did exist.
habuit, non habet (Tusc. i. 36), he had, he has no longer.
b. The perfect is sometimes used of indefinite time in connection with a general present: as,
qui in compedibus corporis semper fuerunt, etiam cum soluti sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 31), they who have always been in fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.
c. The perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negations: as,
qui studet contingere metam multa tulit fecitque (Hor. A. P. 412), he who aims to reach the goal, first bears and does many things.
non æris acervus et auri deduxit corpore febres (id. Ep. i. 2), the pile of brass and gold removes not the fever from the frame.
d. The perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a negation, where in affirmation the imperfect would be preferred: as,
dicebat melius quam scripsit Hortensius (Or. 38), Hortensius (sucu)? spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison: compare the use of quisquam, ullus, \&c. (foot of p.48), and the French ne after comparatives and superlatives.]
[For Perfect in apodosis of future conditions, see § 59, 4, e; for Perfect after ubi, \&c., § 62, 2, a.]

Remark. - The Perfect and Pluperfect of a few verbs are equivalent to the Present and Imperfect of kindred verbs (novi, I know; coepi, I begin; memini, I remember; cognoveram, I knew; venerat (= aderat), he was at hand (see § 36, I) : as,
qui dies æstus maximos efficere consuevit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides.
cujus splendor obsolevit (Quinc. v. 18), whose splendor is now out of date.
6. Pluperfect. The Pluperfect is used to denote an action completed in time past; sometimes, also, repeated in indefinite time: as,
neque vero cum aliquid mandaverat confectum putabat (Cat. iii. 7), for when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as already done.
que si quando adepta est id quod ei fuerat concupitum, tum fert alacritatem (Tusc. iv. 15), if it [desire] ever has gained what it had desired, then it produces joy.
\%. Future Perfect. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: as,
ut sementem feceris ita metes (Or. ii. 65), as you sow, so shall you reap.
Remark. - The Future Perfect is used (as above) with much greater exactness in Latin than in English, and may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Latins for representing an action as completed: as,
quid inventum sit paulo post videro (Acad. ii. 24), what has been found out I will see presently.
ego certe meum officium prestitero (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty.
8. Epistolary Tenses. In Letters, the perfect (historical) or imperfect may be used for the present, and the pluperfect for past tenses, as if the letter were dated at the time it is supposed to be received: as,
neque tamen, cum hæc scribebam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerere (Fam. v. 12), nor while $I$ write this am $I$ ignorant under what burdens you are weighed.
ad tuas omnes [epistulas] rescripseram pridie (Att. ix. 10), $I$ [have] answered all your letters yesterday.
9. Tenses of the Subjunctive. The tenses of the Subjunctive denote Absolute time only in independent clauses. In these the Present always refers to future time ; the Imperfect to either past or present ; the Perfect to either future or past ; the Pluperfect always to past.

In dependent clauses, the tenses of the Subjunctive denote Relative time, not with reference to the speaker, but to the action of some other verb.
10. Sequence of Tenses. The forms which denote absolute time may be used in any connection. But those denoting relative time follow special rules for the Sequence of Tenses. For this purpose, tenses are divided into two classes: viz.,

1. Primary, including the Present, both Futures, and Perfect (definite);
2. Secondary, including the Imperfect, Perfect (historical), and Pluperfect.

Rule. - In compound sentences, a Primary tense in the leading clause is followed by a Primary tense in the dependent clause; and a Secondary tense is followed by a Secondary: as,
scribit ut nos moneat, he writes to warn us. scribet ut nos moneat, he will write to warn us. scripsit ut nos moneat, he has written to warn us. scribe (scribito) ut nos moneas, write that you may warn us. scripsit ut nos moneret, he wrote to warn us. scribit quasi oblitus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten. scripsit quasi oblitus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten.
Remark. - The Rule appears in the following Diagram:-
TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.
Primary. $\mid$ Secondary.
$\left.\begin{array}{c|c}\text { 1. Action not complete (time rela- } \\ \text { tively present or future). }\end{array}\right\} \begin{gathered}\text { Primary. }\end{gathered} \begin{gathered}\text { Secondary. } \\ \text { Imperfect. }\end{gathered}$
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { 2. Action complete (time relatively } \\ \text { past). }\end{array}\right\}$ Perfect. $\mid$ Pluperfect.
In applying the rule for the Sequence of Tenses, consider (1) whether the leading verb is primary or secondary; (2) whether the dependent verb is required to denote complete action (i.e. relatively past), or incomplete (relatively present or future): By taking the corresponding tense, as given above, the correct usage will generally be found.

Notice that the Future Perfect denotes relatively completed action, and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect.
a. The perfect definite is properly a primary tense; but as its action is (at least) commenced in past time, it is more commonly followed by secondary tenses : as,
ut satis esset præsidi provisum est (Cat. ii. 12), provision has been made that there should be ample guard.
adduxi hominem in quo satisfacere exteris nationibus possetis (Verr. i. 1), I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations.
b. The perfect subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action (either as Perfect definite or historical) depending on a verb in a primary tense: as,
ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequens fuerit Platonis auditor (Or. 4), it may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato.
c. In clauses of Result, the perfect subjunctive is very often (the present rarely) used after secondary tenses : as,

Hortensius ardebat dicendi cupiditate sic ut in nullo unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Brut. 88), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I never saw a more burning ardor in any man.
Siciliam Verres per triennium ita vexavit ac perdidit, ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nullo modo possit (Verr. i. 4), for three years [Verres] so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state.

Remark. - This construction gives more emphasis to the fact stated as a result; while the regular one gives more prominence to the main clause. The perfect, thus used, can stand only for a perfect indicative, not an imperfect; and, in general, the perfect is often represented by the perfect subjunctive, contrary to the general rule: as,

Thorius erat ita non superstitiosus ut illa plurima in suâ patriâ et sacrificia et faná contemneret; ita non timidus ad mortem ut in acie sit ob rem publicam interfectus (Fin. ii. 20), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnebat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country, so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the state.
Zeno nullo modo is erat qui nervos virtutis inciderit [compare $5, d]$; sed contra qui omnia in unâ virtute poneret (Acad. i. 10), Zeno was noway one to cut the sinews of virtue; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depond on virtue alone.
d. A general truth after a past tense follows the connection of tenses in Latin (though not usually in English): as,
ex his quæ tribuisset sibi quam mutabilis esset reputabat (Q.C. iii. 9), from what she [Fortune] had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is.
ibi quantam vim ad stimulandos animos ira haberet, apparuit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to goad the mind.
e. The historical present, or the present with dum, may be followed by either primary or secondary tenses, but more commonly by secondary : as,
rogat ut curet quod dixisset (Quinct. 5), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.
castella communit quo facilius prohiberi possent (B. G. i. 8), he strengthens the forts that they might be more easily kept off.
$f$. When the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are used in protasis and apodosis, they may stand after any tense: as,
quia tale sit, ut vel si ignorarent id homines, \&c. (Fin. ii. 15), because it is such that even if men were ignorant.
g. The imperfect subjunctive, in protasis or apodosis, even when it refers to present time, is regularly followed by secondary tenses: as,
si solos eos diceres miseros quibus moriendum esset, neminem exciperes (Tusc. i. 5), if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one.
7. After the present, when a past tense appears to be in the writer's thought, secondary tenses sometimes follow by a kind of Synesis: as,
sed tamen ut scires hæc tibi scribo (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus [as if Epistolary Imperfect].
cujus præcepti tanta vis est ut ea non homini cuipiam sed Delphico deo tribueretur (Leg. i. 22), such is the force of this precept, that it was aŝcribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god [the precept was an old one].
11. Infinitive. The tenses of the Infinitive are present, past, or future, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend: as,
nostros non esse inferiores intellexit (B. G.ii. 8), he ascertained that our men were not inferior.
quam Juno fertur terris magis omnibus coluisse (en. i. I5), which 7 uno', 'tis said, cherished above all lands.
sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos (Læl. 21), they hope they shall receive the greatest advantage.
a. The present infinitive, after a verb in the past, must often be rendered by the perfect infinitive in English: as,
scire potuit (Milo, 17), he might have known.
qui videbatur omnino mori non debuisse (Arch. 8), who seemed [one that] ought not to have died at all.
Remark. - This is most frequent with verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (potui, debui, oportuit); and occurs because the tenses of the corresponding verbs in English have lost their original past signification (compare "one whom he ought [owed] a grudge unto,". A.D. 1597).
Z. Memini and a few other verbs, stating what the speaker has personally witnessed, take the present infinitive : as,
memini Catonem mecum disserere (Læl. 3), I remember Cato's discoursing with me (So dicere aiebat, De Or. ii. 3.)
Compare Greek present infinitive for imperfect (G. 203, N. I).
Remark. - The infinitive posse is used also in the sense of a future.
c. Except in Indirect Discourse the present infinitive only is generally used, with no distinct reference to time : as,
est adulescentis majores natu vereri (Off. i. 34), it is the duty of the young to reverence their elders.
de quibus dicere aggrediar (Off. ii. I), of which I will undertake to speak.
d. After verbs of wishing, necessity, and the like, the perfect passive infinitive is often used instead of the present : as,
domesticâ curâ te levatum [esse] volo (Q.F. iii. 9), I wish you relieved of household care.
liberis consultum volumus propter ipsos (Fin. iii. 17), we wish regard paid to children on their own account.
quod jampridem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 2), which ought to have been done long ago.
Remark. - In early Latin, and in poetry, the perfect active is also used, and even after other verbs than those of wishing: as,
commisisse cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), he is cautious of doing.
edixerunt ne quis quid fugæ causâ vendidisse neve emisse vellet (Liv. xxxix. 17), they [the old laws] declared that none should sell or buy to escape obligation.
haud equidem premendo alium me extulisse velim (id. xxii. 59), $I$ would not by crushing another exalt myself.
sunt qui nolint tetigisse (Hor. Sat. i. 2), there are those who would not touch.
nollem dixisse (Verr. v. 20), I would not say.
e. The perfect infinitive is used, especially by poets, to denote a completed action after verbs of feeling; also with satis est (habeo), melius est, contentus sum, and in a few other cases where this distinction is important: as,
quiêsse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), it will be better to have kept quiet.
non pœnitebat intercapedinem scribendi fecisse (Fam. xvi. 21), $I$ was not sorry to have made a respite of writing.
pudet me... non præstitisse (id. xiv. 3), I am ashamed not to have shown.
sunt quos curriculo pulverem Olympicum collegisse juvat (Hor. Od. i. 1), there are those who delight, \&c.
majus dedecus est parta amittere quam omnino non paravisse (Jug. 31), it is more discredit to have lost one's gains than never to have gained at all.
nil ego si peccem possum nescisse ( Ov . Her. xvii. 47), if I go wrong, I cannot have done it in ignorance.
$f$. The future infinitive is often expressed by fore or futurum esse ut (§ 70, 4) : as,
spero fore ut contingat id nobis (Tusc. i.), I hope that will be our happy lot.

## 59. Conditional Sentences.

## A Conditional Sentence (or Clause) is one beginning

 with IF, or some equivalent.1. Protasis and Apodosis. In a conditional sentence, the clause containing the condition is called the Protasis; and that containing the conclusion is called the Apodosis: as,
si qui exire volunt [protasis], conivere possum [apodosis] (Cat. ii. 12), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes slut.
a. The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particles si, if; sin, but if ; nisi (ni), unless. But a clause introduced by an Indefinite Relative (as quisquis, whoever), a Relative or Concessive Conjunction (cum, since, quamvis, although), a Participle, or an Imperative, is treated as a conditional clause: as,
quæcunque causa vos huc attulisset, lætarer (De Or. ii. 4), $I$ should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here [i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did].
philosophia, cui qui pareat, omne tempus ætatis sine molestia possit degere (Cat. M. 1), philosophy, which IF any one obeys,

- he will be able to spend his whole life without vexation.
virtutem qui adeptus erit ubicunque erit gentium a nobis diligetur (N. D. i. 44), if any one shall have attained virtue, dec.


## [For Implied Conditions, see § 60.]

Note. - The Indefinite Relative, whoever, whatever, whenever, may be regarded as a conditional expression, equivalent to if any one, if at any time, \&c., as is seen in the analogy of the Greek ôs $\ddot{\sim} v, o ̈ \tau q v$, and in the structure of relative as compared with conditional clauses. In the Statutes of Massachusetts, for instance, the phrase "Whoever shall" has been substituted for the old form "If any person shall," \&c.
b. The Apodosis, being the main clause, depends in form on the grammatical structure of the sentence, which may require a Participle, Infinitive, or Phrase : as,
quod si præterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum solâ décimâ legione iturum (B. G. i. 40), but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.
si quos adverşum prœlium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id.),
if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find.
sepulturâ quoque prohibituri, ni rex humari jussisset (Q. C. viii. 2), intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king lad ordered liinn to be interred.
2. Particular and General Conditions. The supposition contained in a Protasis may be either particular or general.
a. A Particular supposition refers to a definite act (or a definite series of acts) occurring at some definite time: as,
si hæc condicio consulatas data est . . . feram libenter (Cat. iv. I), if this condition has been imposed on the consulship, $I$ will bear it willingly.
b. A General supposition refers to any one of a class of acts, which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time: as,
si vero habet aliquod tamquam pabulum studi atque doctrinæ, nihil est otiosâ senectute jucundius (Cat. M. I4), indeed, if it have some sustenance (as it were) of study and learning, nothing is more cheerful than an old age of leisure.
Note. - These two classes of conditions are distinguished logically; and in most languages are also distinguished grammatically, - but only as to Present and Past Conditions. In Latin, in particular conditions, present or past tenses of the Indicative are regularly used in Protasis, where no opinion is intimated of its truth or falsity; and the Apodosis may take any form of the verb which can be used in an independent sentence. In general conditions, also, referring to Present or Past time, the Indicative is for the most part used both in Protasis and Apodosis. (Compare Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 220.)
c. Classification. The principal forms of Conditional Sentences may be exhibited as follows:-

## 1. Present or Past Conditions.

(a) Simple statement $\{$ si adest bene est, if he is [now] here, (nothing implied as to fulfilment) :
si aderat (adfuit) bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well.
(b) Supposition con- $\begin{aligned} & \text { si adesset bene esset, if he were [now] }\end{aligned}$ trary to fact (condition not fulfilled) : here, it would be well.
si adfuisset bene fuisset, if he had [then] been here . it would have been well.

## 2. Future Conditions.

(a) More vivid (prob- $\{$ si aderit bene erit, if he is [shall be] able): here, it will be well,
(b) Less vivid (improb- \{si adsit bene sit, if he should [hereafter] able): be here, it would be well.

## 3. General Suppositions.

(a) Indefinite subject: $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { si hoc dicas bene est, if one says this, } \\ \text { it is well. }\end{array}\right.$
(b) Repeated Action: [whenever] he said this, it was well.
3. Present and Past Conditions. A present or past condition may be simply stated, implying nothing as to its fulfilment; or it may be stated so as to imply that it is not or was not fulfilled.
a. In the statement of a condition whose falsity is not implied, the present and past tenses of the Indicative are used in Protasis; the apodosis expressing simply what is, was, or will be, the result of the fulfilment (G. 221) : as,
si tu exercitusque valetis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well.
si justitia vacat, in vitio est (Off. i. 19), if justice be wanting, it [bravery] is in fault.
si placet . . . videamus (Cat. M. 5), if you please, let us see.
fuerit hoc censoris, si judicabat (Div. i. 16), grant that it was the censor's duty if he judged, dec.
quicquid jurârunt ventus et unda rapit (Prop. ii. 28), whatever they have sworn [i.e. if they have sworn anything], the winds and waves sweep away.
7. In the statement of a supposition known to be false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect subjunctive are used, - the imperfect referring to present time, the pluperfect to past (G. 222) : as,
quæ si exsequi nequirem, tamen me lectulus oblectaret meus (Cat. M. I i), if I could not [now] follow this [an active life], yet my couch would afford me plcasure.
nisi tu amisisses, nunquam recepissem (id. 4), unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it.
si meum consilium auctoritasque valuisset, tu hodie egeres, nos liberi essemus, respublica non tot duces et exercitus amisisset (Phil. ii. 15), if my judgment and authority had prevailed [as they did not], you would this day be a beggar, we should be free, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders and armies.

Note. - The implication of falsity, in this construction, is not inherent in the Subjunctive; but comes from the transfer of a future condition to past time. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the time of writing, already passed; so that, if the condition remains $a$ condition, it must be contrary to fact. So forms implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see $c$, below).
c. In many cases the imperfect refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist : as,
hic si mentis esset suæ, ausus esset educere exercitum (Pis. 21), if he were of sane mind would he have dared to lead out the army?
non concidissent, nisi illud receptaculum classibus nostris pateret (Verr. ii. 1), [the power of Carthage] would not have fallen, unless that station had been open to our fleets.
d. The past tenses of the indicative in Apodosis (after a subjunctive in Protasis) may be used to express what ought to have been done, or is intended, or is already begun: as,
si Romæ privatus esset hoc tempore, tamen is erat deligendus (Manil. 17), if he [Pompey] were at this time a private citizen in Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.
quod esse caput debebat, si probari posset (Fin. iv. 9), what ought to be the main point if it could be proved.
si licitum esset matres veniebant (Verr. vi. 49), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed.
in amplexus filiæ ruebat, nisi lictores obstitissent (Ann. xvi. 32), he was about rushing into his daughter's arms, unless the lictors had opposed.
Remark. - In this use, the imperfect indicative corresponds in time to the imperfect subjunctive, and the perfect or pluperfect indicative to the pluperfect subjunctive (the tenses of the subjunctive may, however, be used as well; see Note, above) : as, satius erat (esset), it were better.
e. This use is regular with all verbs and expressions denoting the necessity, propriety, desirableness, duty, possibility, of an action - including the two periphrastic conjugations (see page 83) where it is implied that what was necessary, \&c., has not been done. It is sometimes carried still further in poetry: as,
nam nos decebat lugere (Tusc. i. 47), it would befit us to monrn. si non alium jactaret odorem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor.
Note. - Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of Futurity. Compare note under $b$.
e. So the participle in urus with fui is equivalent to a pluperfect subjunctive. Hence, when the Apodosis is itself a dependent clause, requiring the subjunctive, a pluperfect subjunctive may be represented by the Future Participle with the subjunctive of esse (compare apodosis in Indirect Discourse, § 67, I, c) : as,
quid enim futurum fuit [=fuisset], si . . (Liv. ii. 1), what would have happened, if, dec.
neque ambigitur quin ... id facturus fuerit, si . . . (ib.), and no doubt he would have done it, if, frc.
ex quo intellegi potest quam acuti naturâ sint, qui hæc sine doctrinâ credituri fuerint (Tusc. i. 21), hence it may be understood how keen they are by nature, who, without instruction, would have believed this. [Here the condition is contained in the words sine doctrina.]
adeo parata seditio fuit, ut Othonem rapturi fuerint, ni incerta noctis timuissent (Tac. H. i. 26), so far advanced was the conspiracy, that they would have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night [in the direct discourse, rapuissent ni timuissent].
4. Futuse Conditions. A Future condition may either make a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the result; or the supposition may be less distinct and vivid, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. If the condition is stated vividly, so as to be conceived as actually about to take place, the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis (G. 223) : as,
sanabimur si volemus (Tusc. iii. 6), we shall be healed if we wish.
quot si legere aut audire voletis... reperietis (Cat. M. 6), if you will read or hear, you will find.
b. The Present -subjunctive expresses a future condition less vividly, or as le.ss probable, than when the future indicative is used (G. 224) : as,
hæc si tecum patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat (Cat. i. 8), if thy country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?
quod si quis deus mihi largiatur . . . valde recusem (Cat. M. 23), but if some god were to grant me this, I should carnestly refuse.
Remark. - The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis.
c. If the conditional act is regarded as completed before that of the apodosis begins, the future perfect is substituted for the future, and the perfect subjunctive for the present:-as,
sin, cum potuero, non venero, tum erit inimicus (Att. ix. 2), but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.
si non feceris, ignoscam (Fam. v. 19), if you do not do it, I will excuse you.
Remark. - This is a very common construction in Latin, owing to the tendency of the language to represent an action as completed, rather than as in progress.
d. Any form denoting future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition (so the participles in dus and rus, and verbs of necessity, possibility, and the like) : as,
non possum istum accusare si cupiam (Verr. v. 41), I cannot accuse him if I should desire.
alius finis constituendus est si prius quid maxime reprehendere Scipio solitus sit dixero (Læl. 16), another limit must be set if I shall first state what Scipio was most wont to blame.
e. Rarely the perfect is used (rhetorically) in apodosis with a present or even future in protasis, representing the conclusion as already accomplished: as,
si hoc bene fixum in animo est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered.
si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicimus (id. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.
$f$. Frequently the present subjunctive of a future condition becomes imperfect by the sequence of tenses or some other cause (retaining the same force relatively to past time) : as, non poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii. 44), was not able unless he wished.
Cæsar si petèret . . . non quicquam proficeret (Hor. Sat. i. 2), if even Casar were to ask he would gain nothing. [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply si petat uon proficiat, thrown into past time.]
tumulus apparuit . . . si luce palam iretur hostis præventurus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared . . . if they should go openly by light the enemy would prevent. [Independent of apparuit, this would be, si eatur, preventurus est, for preveniat.]
5. General Conditions. General conditions are distinguished in Latin in only two cases: $\mathrm{viz}_{\mathrm{m}}$
a. Indefinite Subject. The subjunctive is used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an indefinite subject (you = any one). Here the present Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis (G. 225) : as,
mens prope uti ferrum est: si exerceas conteritur; nisi exerceas, rubiginem contrahit (Cato de Mor.), the mind is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don't use it, it gathers rust.
virtutem necessario gloria, etiamsi tu id non agas, consequitur (Tusc. i. 38), glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one's aim.
si prohibita impune transcenderis, neque metus ultra neque pudor est (Ann. iii. 54), if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear nor shame any more.
si cederes placabilis (Tac. Ann.), [he was] easily appeased if one yielded.
b. Repeated Action. In later writers (not in Cicero), the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in protasis, with the
imperfect indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action: as,
accusatores, si facultas incideret, pœnis adficiebantur (Ann. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.
quemcunque lictor prehendisset, tribunus mitti jubebat (Liv. iii. II), zuhomever the lictor had seized, the tribune ordered to be let go.
c. In all other cases, General Suppositions - including those introduced by Indefinite Relatives - take the indicative.

## 60. Implied Conditions.

In many sentences properly conditional, the subordinate member is not expressed as a conditional clause; but is stated in some other form of words, or is implied in the nature of the thought.

1. Condition Disguised. The condition is often contained in some other form of words than a regular Protasis, in the same clause or sentence.
a. The condition may be contained in a relative, participial, or other qualifying clause : as,
facile me paterer - vel ipso quærente, vel apud Cassianos judices - pro Sex. Roscio dicere (Rosc. Am. 30), I would readily allow myself to speak for Roscius, IF he, dec.
non mihi, nisi admonito, venisset in mentem (De Or. ii. 42), it would not have come into my mind, unless [I had been] admonished [ $=$ nisi admonitus essem].
nulla alia gens tantâ mole cladis non obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by suck a weight of disaster [i.e. IF it had been any other people].
nemo unquam, sine magnâ spe immortalitatis, se pro patriâ offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 15), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country.
quid hunc paucorum annorum accessio juvare potuisset (Læl. 3), zuhat good could the addition of a few years have done him? [if he had had them.]
b. The condition may be contained in a wish, or expressed as a command, by the imperative or hortatory subjunctive : as, utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nobis non esset (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling $u s$ [i.e. if I had been].
roges enim Aristonem, neget (Fin. iv. 25), for ask Aristo, and he would deny.
tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 13), remove this notion, and you will have done away grief.
naturam expellas furcâ, tamen usque recurret (Hor. Ep. i. 10), drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return.
manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cat. M. 7), old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence.
Note. - This usage is probably the origin of the use of the subjunctive in Protasis; the subjunctive being used first, as in § 57, 3, while the conditional particle is a form of an indefinite pronoun.
c. Rarely, the condition is stated in an independent clause : as, rides: majore cachinno concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), you laugh: he shakes with louder laughter.
de paupertate agitur: multi patientes pauperes commemorantur (Tusc. iii. 24), we speak of poverty : many patient poor are mentioned.
2. Condition Omitted. The condition is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument.

Remark. - Under this head belong all the apparently independent uses of the subjunctive not mentioned in $\S 57,2$. In this use the perfect subjunctive is especially common, in the same sense as the present, referring to the immediate future; the imperfect to past time (not to present, as in §57, 3).
a. Potential Subjunctive. The present and perfect subjunctive (often with forsitan or the like) are used to denote an action as possible; also, the second person singular of all the tenses, denoting an indefinite subject : as,
hic quærat quispiam (N. D. ii. 53), here some one may ask. ut aliquis fortasse dixerit (Off. iii. 6), as one may perhaps say.
forsitan hæc illi mirentur (Verr. v. 56), they may perchance marvel at these things.
tum in lecto quoque videres susurros (Hor. Sat. ii. 8), then on each couch you might see whisperings.
b. The subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statement (conjunctivus modestice) : as,
pace tuâ dixerim (Mil. 38), I would say by your leave.
haud sciam an (De Or. i. 60), I should incline to think.
tu velim sic existimes (Fam. xii. 6), I zvould like you to think so. vellem adesset M. Antonius (Phil. i. 7), I wish Anthony were here [here vellem implies an impossible wish in present time].
hæc erant fere quæ tibi nota esse vellem (Fam. xii. 5), this is about what I want you to know [here vellem is simply velim transferred to past time on account of erat, by connection of tenses, and does not imply an impossible wish].
c. The Indicative of verbs signifying necessity, propriety, and the like, may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: as,
longum est [sit] ea dicere, sed . . . (in Pison. ro), it would be tedious to tell, dec.
illud erat aptius, æquum cuique concedere (Fin. iv. 1), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.
ipsum enim exspectare magnum fuit (Phil. ii. 40), would it have been a great matter to wait for himself?
quanto melius fuerat (Off. iii. 25), how much better it would have been.
quod contra decuit ab illo meum [corpus cremari] (Cat. M.), whereas on the other hand mine ought to have been burut by him.
nam nos decebat domum lugere ubi esset aliquis in lucem editus (Tusc. i. 48), for it were fitting to mourn the house where a man has been born [but we do not].
nunc est bibendum ... nunc Saliaribus ornare pulvinar deorum tempus erat dapibus sodales (Hor. Od. i. 37), i.e. it would be time [if it were for us to do it, but it is a public act].

Remark. - Notice that, in this construction, the imperfect indicative refers to present time; the pluperfect to simply past time, like the perfect. Thus oportebat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oportuerat means it ought to luave been, but was not.
d. The omission of the protasis often gives rise to mixed constructions: as,
peream male si non optimum erat (Hor. Cat. ii. r), may $I$ perish if it would not be better. [Here the protasis and apodosis come under $\S \mathbf{5 9}, 3, d$. Optimum erat is itself an apodosis with the protasis omitted.]
quod si in hoc mundo fieri sine deo non potest, ne in sphærâ quidem eosdem motus Archimedes sine divino ingenio potuisset imitari (Tusc. i. 25). [Here the protasis of potuisset is in sine divino ingenio.]

## 61. Conditional Particles.

Certain Particles implying a Condition are followed by the Subjunctive, but upon several different principles.

1. Comparative Particles. The particles of comparison - tamquam, quasi, quam si, acsi, utsi, velutsi, veluti, and poetic ceu-introduce conditional clauses, of Al.Laticoush.h.38 1.6.
which the conclusion is omitted or implied; and take the subjunctive.

Remark. - Contrary to the English idiom, the present and perfect subjunctive are regularly used with these particles, except where the connection of tenses requires secondary tenses: as,
tamquam clausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia was closed.
tamquam si claudus sim (Plaut. Asin. 2), just as if I were lame. quasi vero non specie visa judicentur (Acad. ii. 18), as if forsooth visible things were not judged by their appearance.
velut si coram adesset (B. G. i. 32), as if he were there present. similiter facis ac si me roges (N.S. iii. 3), you do exactly as if you asked me.
æque ac si mea negotia essent (Fam. xiii. 43), as much as if it were my own business.
ceu cetera nusquam bella forent (※n. ii. 438), as if there were no fighting elsewhere.
magis quam si domi esses (Att. vi. 4), more than if you were at home.
ac si ampullam perdidisset (Fin. iv. 12), as if he had lost the bottle.
2. Concessive Particles. The particles of concession -although, granting that-sometimes take the subjunctive, but under various constructions: viz.,

Quamvis and ut (except in later writers) take the hortatory subjunctive ( $\S 57,2$ ); licet is a verb, and is followed by an object-clause ( $\S 70,3$ ) ; etsi has the same constructions as si (§59); cum has a special construction (§ 62, 1); quanquam takes the indicative $(59,3, a)$ : as,
quamvis ipsi infantes sint, tamen ... (Or. 23), however incapable themselves of speaking, yet, drc.
ut neminem ali aliam rogâsset (Mil. 17), even if I had asked no other.
licet omnes in me terrores periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. II), though all terrors and perils should menace me.
etsi abest maturitas (Fam. vi.18), though ripeness of age is wanting.
etsi nihil aliud abstulissetis (Sull. 32), even if you had taken away nothing else.
3. A Proviso, introduced by modo, dum, dummodo, requires the Subjunctive: as,
valetudo modo bona sit (Brut. 16), provided the health is good. modo ne sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 30), provided it [pleasure] be not after the manner of cattle.
oderint dum metuant (Off. i. 28), let them hate, if only they fear. dum de patris morte quæreretur (Rosc. Am. 41), let the inquiry only be of a father's death.
dummodo inter me atque te murus intersit (Cat. i. 5), provided only the city wall is between us.

Note. - The Subjunctive with modo is a hortatory Subjunctive; with dum and dummodo, a development from the Subjunctive in temporal clauses.
4. The use of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows:-
a. Si is used for affirmative, nisi and si non for negative conditions. With nisi, the negative belongs rather to the Apodosis, -i.e. the conclusion is true except in the case supposed; with si non, the Protasis is negative, -i.e. the conclusion is limiled to the case supposed. (The difference is often only one of emphasis.) Nisi is never used if the clause has a concessive force. Ni is an old form, reappearing in poets and later writers, and in a few conventional phrases. Sometimes nisi si occurs.
b. Nisi vero and nisi forte - sometimes nisi alone - regularly introduce an objection, or exception, ironically, and take the Indicative.
c. Sive . . sive (seu) introduce conditions in the form of an alternative. They have no peculiar construction, but may be used with any kind of condition, or with different kinds in the two branches, often also without a verb.
d. Of the concessive particles, the compounds of si are used in all the forms of protasis; quanquam regularly introduces only conceded facts, and hence takes the Indicative; quamvis, quantum vis, quamlibet, ut, cum, and libet, take idiomatic constructions corresponding to their original meaning. Later writers, however, frequently use all these particles like the compounds of si, connecting them with the Indicative or Subjunctive according to the nature of the condition. Even Cicero occasionally uses quanquam with the Subjunctive.

## 62. Relations of Time.

Temporal clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin ; and are construed like other relative clauses, except where they have developed into special constructions.

Temporal Particles are the following:-ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac or simul alone), cum (quom), antequam, priusquam, postquam (posteäquam), dum, donec, quoad, quamdiu, quando.

1. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, either alone or compounded with ccunque, are used as indefinite relatives, and have the constructions of Protasis (§59) : as,
cum rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrabatur (Verr. v. 10), whenever he had seen a rose, he thought Spring was begun [general condition].
cum id malum esse negas (Tusc. ii. 12), when you [the individual disputant] deny it to be an evil.
cum videas eos :.. dolore non frangi (id. 27), when you see [indefinite subject] that those are not broken by pain, dec.
quod profecto cum me nulla vis cogeret, facere non auderem (Phil. v. 18), which I would surely not venture to do, as longas no force compelled me [supposition contrary to fact].
id ubi dixisset, hastam in fines eorum emittebat (Liv. i. 32), when he had said this, he [used to] cast the spear into their territories [repeated action].
Remark. - So est cum, fuit cum, \&c., are used in general expressions like est qui, sunt qui (§ 65).
2. Temporal clauses of absolute time take the Indicative; those of relative time, the Subjunctive.
(For the definition of absolute and relative time, see § 58, I, 9.)
Note. - This distinction is not made in other languages, but it may be made clear in the two following expressions: 1 . When was the great fire in London? Ans. When Charles II. was king (absolute time). 2. When Charles II. was king (relative time), a great fire broke out in London. In the first case the reign of Charles is referred to as an absolute fixed date, known to the hearer; while in the second the time is not so fixed, but is given as relative to the event narrated by the main verb, which alone denotes absolute time. In this construction, the Subjunctive describes the time by its characteristics (as in § 65, 2), and thus is a branch of the Subjunctive of result. Hence this qualitative character of the temporal clause often reappears and occasions the Subjunctive, where the idea of relative time would not naturally be expected: as, tum, cum haberet haec respublica Luscinos, \&c. . . . et tum, cum erant Catones, \&c. Here the former clause describes the character of the age by its men (at $a$ time when there were such men); in the latter, the individual men are present to the mind (at the time of the Catos, \&c.).
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac or simul alone), introduce clauses of absolute time, and take the Indicative (usually the narrative tenses, the perfect and the historical present): as,
milites postquam victoriam adepti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fecêre (Sall. Cat. II), when the armies had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.
Pompeius ut equitatum suum pulsum vidit, acie excessit (B. C.
iii. 94), when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the army.

Remark. -1. Those particles may also take the imperfect, denoting a continued state of things, and the pluperfect, denoting the result of an action completed, in the Indicative : as,
postquam instructi utrimque stabant, duces in medium procedunt (Liv. i. 23), when they stood in array on both sides, the generals advance into the midst.
P. Africanus posteaquam bis consul et censor fuerat (Div. in Cæ.. 21), when Africanus had been [i.e. had the dignity of having been] twice consul and censor.
postquan id difficilius visum est, neque facultas perficiendi dabatur, ad Pompeium transierunt (B. C. iii. 60), when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey.
post diem quintum quam barbari iterum male pugnaverant ( $=$ victi sunt), legati a Boccho veniunt (Jug. rio), the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys came from Bocchus.
2. Rarely these particles denote relative time, and take the Subjunctive: as,
posteaquam maximas ædificâsset ornâssetque classes (Manil. 4), having built and equipped mighty fleets.
b. Cum (quom), temporal, meaning when, introduces both absolute and relative time, and takes either mood, - the Indicative of the present and perfect, the Subjunctive of the imperfect and pluperfect: as,
cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibidem fuerunt servi (Rosc. Am. 61), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.
nempe eo [lituo] regiones direxit tum cum urbem condidit (Div. i. 17), he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time lie founded the city.
cum servili bello premeretur (Manil. II), when she [Italy] was under the load of the Servile war.
inde cum se in Italiam recepisset (id. 12), when he had returned thence to Italy.
cum incendisses cupiditatem meam . . . tum discedis a nobis (Fam. xv. 21), while you had inflamed my eagerness, yet you withdrew from us.
Note. - The Present takes the Indicative because present time is generally, from its very nature, defined in the mind; and it is only when the circumstances are described as causal or adversative (see below, § 65, 2, e) that the Subjunctive is used. The Perfect takes the Indicative as the tense of narrative, as with postquam, \&c. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, fitter to denote relative time.

Remark. - 1. But the imperfect and pluperfect may denote absolute time, and then are in the Indicative: as,
res cum hæc scribebam erat in extremum adducta discrimen (Fam. xii. 6), at the time I write [epistolary] the affair was brought into great hazard.
quem quidem cum ex urbe pellebam, hoc providebam animo (Cat. iii. 7), when I was about forcing him [conative imperfect] from the city, I looked forward to this.
fulgentes gladios hostium videbant Decii cum in aciem eorum irruebant (Tusc. ii.'24), the Decii saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.
tum cum in Asia res magnas permulti amiserant (Manil. 7), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.
2. When the clauses are inverted, so that the real temporal clause becomes the main clause, and vice versa, the Indicative must be used : as,
dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius infans necatur (Clu. 9), ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed.
hoc facere noctu apparabant, cum matres familiæ repente in publicum procurrerunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.
3. With Future tenses, there is no distinction of absolute or relative time; and hence the Indicative is used: as,
non dubitabo dare operam ut te videam, cum id satis commode facere potero (Fam. xiii. i), I shall not hesitate to take pains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.
longum illud tempus cum non ero (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.
In the other tenses, the distinction is of late origin: hence in Plautus quom always takes the Indicative except where the Subjunctive is used for other reasons.
c. In narration antequam and priusquam - also, in late writers, dum and donec - have the same construction as cum: as,
antequam tuas legi litteras (Att. ii. 7), before I read your letter. nec ante finis fuit quam concessêre (Liv. viii. 13), there was no end until they yielded [regular with non ante quam, \&c.].
antequam homines nefarii de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi (Planc. 41), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.
nec obstitit falsis donec tempore ac spatio vanescerent (Tac. Ann. ii. 82), nor did he contradict the falsehoods till they died out through lapse of time.
Remark. - In reference to future time, these particles take the present and future perfect indicative; rarely the future indicative and present subjunctive: as,
prius quam de ceteris rebus respondeo, de amicitiâ pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 1), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little of friendship.
non defatigabor ante quam illorum ancipites vias percepero (De Or. iii. 36), I shall not weary till I have traced out their doübtful ways.
In a few cases the subjunctive of protasis seems to be used: as,
priusquam incipias consulto et ubi consulueris mature facto opus est (Sall. Cat. 1), before beginning you need reflection, and after reflecting, prompt action.
tempestas minatur antequain surgat (Sen. Ep. 103), the storm threatens before it rises. [Compare § 59, 5, a.]
d. Dum, donec, and quoad, implying purpose, take the subjunctive (§ 64); otherwise, except in later writers, the indicative. Dum and dummodo, provided, take the subjunctive: as, dum hæc geruntur (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on.
donec rediit silentium fuit (Liv. xxiii. 31), there was silence until the returned.
dum res maneant, verba fingant (Fin. v. 29), so long as the facts remain, let them fashion words.
hoc feci dum licuit, intermisi quoad non licuit (Phil. iii. 13), $I$ did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued so long as it was not.
dummodo sit polita, dum urbana, dum elegans (Brut.82), provided it be polished, refined, elegant.
Remark. - With all temporal particles, the Subjunctive is often found, depending on other principles of construction.
e. Cum-causal, meaning since, while, or although - takes the subjunctive (often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim) : as,
cum solitudo... insidiarum et metâs plena sit (Fin. i. 20), since solitude is full of treachery and fear.
cum primi ordines $\therefore$ concidissent, tamen acerrime reliqui resistebant (B. G. vii. 62), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigoronsly.
nec reprehendo: quippe cum ipse istam reprehensionem non fugerim (Att. x. 3), I do not blame it : since I myself did not escape that blame.
But frequently in the sense of quod, on the ground that, it takes the Indicative: as,
> gratulor tibi cum tantum vales apud Dolabellam (Fam. xi 14), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.

Note. - This causal relation is merely a variation of the idea of time, where the attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause.
f. Cum . . . tum, signifying both . . . and, usually take the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, it may have the Subjunctive : as,
cum multa non probo, tum illud in primis (Fin. i. 6), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. cum res tota ficta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (ib.), while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point.

## 63. Cause or Reason.

Causal clauses may take the Indicative or Subjunctive according to their construction; the idea of Cause being contained not in the mood itself, but in the form of the argument, or the connecting particles.

1. The Causal Particles quod, quia, quoniam, quando -and in early Latin cum (causal) - take the Indicative: as,
quia postrema ædificata est (Verr. iv. 53), because it was built last.
utinam illum diem videam, cum tibi agam gratias quod me vivere coëgisti (Att. iii. 3), O that I may see the day when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.
quoniam de utilitate jam diximus, de efficiendi ratione dicamus (Or. Part. 26), since we have nows spoken of [its] advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it.
quando ita vis di bene vortant (Trin. 573), since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.
quom tua res distrahitur utinam te redîsse salvam videam (id. 617), since your property is torn in pieces, oh, that I may see you returned safely!
2. Clauses introduced by these particles, like any other dependent clause, take the Subjunctive of Indirect Discourse (see § 67, I ).
a. A relative clause of characteristic, with its verb, in the subiunctive, may have the force of a causal sentence (see § 65, 2).
b. The particle cum, when used in a causal sense, idiomatically takes the Subjunctive ( $\S 62,2, e$ ).

## 64. Purpose.

1. Final Clauses, or those expressing purpose, take the Subjunctive after relatives (qui $=u t i s$ ), or the conjunction ut (uti), in order that (negatively ut ne or ne, lest) : as,
ab aratro abduxerunt Ćncinnatum, ut dictator esset (Fin. ii.
4), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough, that he might be dictator.
scribebat orationes quas alii dicerent (Brut. 56), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.
huic ne ubi consisteret quidem contra te locum reliquisti (Quinct. 22), you have left him no ground even to make a ständ against you.
nihil habeo quod scribam, I have nothing to write.
habebam quo confugerem (Fam. iv. 6), II had [a retreat] whither I might flee.
ut ne sit impune (Mil. 12), that it be not with implenity.
ne qua ejus adventûs procul significatio fiat (B. G. vi. 29), that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.
Remark. - Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause : as,
legum idcirco omnes servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus (Clu. 53), for this reason we are subject to the laws, that we may be free.
eâ causâ . . . ne, for this reason, lest, \&c.
Note. - As ut (uti) is of relative origin, the construction with ut a is the same as that of relatives. That with ne is perhaps, in origin, a hortatory subjunctive.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The ablative quo ( $=\mathrm{ut}$ eo) is used as a conjunction in final clauses, especially with comparatives : as,
libertate usus est, quo impunius dicax esset (Quinct. 3), he availed himself of liberty, that he might bluster with more impunity.
Compare quominus ( $=$ ut eo minus), after verbs of hindering (§ 65, 1, a).
b. The Principal clause, upon which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context: as,
ac ne longum sit... jussimus (Cat. iii. 5), "and, not to be tedious, we ordered, dec. [strictly, " not to be tedious, I say."]
sed ut ad Dionysium redeamus, ... (Tusc. v.22), but to return to Dionysius, \&ec.
satis inconsiderati fuit, ne dicam audacis (Phil. xiii. 5), it was the act of one rash enough, not to say daring.

Remark. - To this principle belongs nedum, still less, not to mention that, with which the verb itself is often omitted: as,
nedum ... salvi esse possimus (Clu. 35), much less could we be safe.
nedum isti . . . non statim conquisituri sint aliquid sceleris et flagitii (Leg. Ag. ii. 35), far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.
nedum in mari et viâ sit facile (Fam. xvi.8), still less is it easy at sea, and on a journey.
c. Final clauses easily become the object of verbs of wishing, commanding, \&c. (see § 68).
2. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive, as in English. The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered-


> * Or gratiâ.

## 65. Consequence or Result.

1. Consecutive Clauses, or those expressing result, take the Subjunctive after relatives or the conjunction ut, so that (negatively, ut non) : as,
nemo est tam senex, qui se annum non putet posse vivere (Cat.
M. 7), no one is so old as not to think he can live a year.
nam est innocentia affectio talis animi, quæ noceat nemini
(Tusc. iii. 8), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do
harm to no one.
sunt aliæ causæ quæ plane efficiant (Top. 15), there are other causes, such as to bring to pass.

Remark. - A negative result is expressed by ut non. Sometimes, when the result is regarded as intended (though not a purpose), ut ne or ne is used: as,
[librum] ita corrigas ne mihi noceat (Fam. vi. 7), correct the book so that it may not hurt me.
hoc est ita utile ut ne plane illudamur ab accusatoribus (Rosc. Am. 20), this is so useful, that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers [i.e., only on this condition].
a. The subjunctive with quominus ( $=$ ut eo minus) may be used, to express a result, after verbs of hindering: as,
nec ætas impedit quominus agri colendi studia teneamus (Cat. M. 17), nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the ground.
b. A clause of result is introduced by quin after general negatives, where quin is equivalent to qui (quae, quod) non; also after clauses denoting hindrance, resistance, doubt, and suspension of effort (when these clauses are also negative): as,
non dubito quin, I do not doubt that [dubito an, I doubt whether]. ægre (vix) abstinui quin, I hardly refrained from, dec.
nihil impedit quin . . ., there is nothing to prevent, \&c.
abesse non potest quin (Or. 70), it cannot be but that.
nihil est illorum quin [=quod non] ego illi dixerim (Plaut.
Bac. iii. 9), there is nothing of this that I have not told him.
Remark. - The above clauses of result easily pass into Substantive Clauses, for which see § 70.
2. A relative clause of Result is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, even where the idea of result can be no longer perceived. This is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise undefined: as,
neque enim tu is es, qui qui sis nesciaś (Fam. v. 12), for you are not such a one, as not to know who you are.
multa dicunt quæ vix intelligant (Fin. iv. I), they say many things such as they hardly understand.
paci quæ nihil habitura sit insidiarum semper est consulendum (Off. i. 11), we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.
unde agger comportari posset, nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), there was nothing left, from which an embankment could be put together.
Note. - These cases of result are to be distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in protasis (§ 59, 1).
Such relative clauses of characteristic are used in several idiomatic constructions: viz., -
a. After general expressions of existence and non-existence, including questions implying a negative: as,
erant qui Helvidium miserarentur (Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius.
quis est qui id non maximis efferat laudibus (Læl. 7), who is there that does not extol it with the highest praises?
sunt aliæ causæ quæ plane efficiant (Top. 15), there are other - causes which clearly effect, de.
b. After unus and solus: as,
nil admirari prope res est una solaque quæ possit facere et servare beatum (Hor. Ep. i.6), to wonder at nothing is almost the sole and only thing that can make and keep one happy.
c. After comparatives followed by quam : as,
majores arbores cædebant quam quas ferre miles posset (Liv. xxviii. 5), they cut larger trees than what a soldier could carry.
Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur veritatem (Brut. 18), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature.
d. In expressions of restriction or proviso, introduced by Relatives: as,
quod sciam, so far as I know.
Catonis orationes, quas quidem invenerim (Brut. 17), the speeches of Cato, at least such as I have discovered.
servus est nemo, qui modo tolerabili condicione sit servitutis (Cat. iv. 8), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.
e. When the quality indicated is connected with the action of the main clause, either as Cause on account of which (since), or as Hindrance in spite of which (although): as,

O virum simplicem qui nos nihil celet (Or. 69), oh, guileless man, who hides nothing from us!
egomet qui sero Grecas litteras attigissem tamen complures Athenis dies sum commoratus (De Or. 18), I myself, though I began Greek literature late, yet, \&c. [lit., a man who].
$f$. Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus, take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with ut); in the poets the Infinitive: as,
idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 19), fit to obtain.
dignum notari (Hor. Sat. i. 3), worthy to be stigmatized.

## 66. Intermediate Clauses.

A Relative or other subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, when it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer, or when it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive.

1. The Subjunctive is used in intermediate clauses to express the thought of some other person -
a. In subordinate clauses in Indirect Discourse (see § 67).
b. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question expressed indirectly, though not indirect discourse proper: as,
animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 6), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
hunc sibi ex animo scrupulum, qui se dies noctesque stimulet ac pungat, ut evellatis postulat (Rosc. Am. 2), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night. [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in evellatis, but is an assertion made by the subject of postulat.]
c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it: as,
nisi restituissent statuas, vehementer iis minatur (Verr. iii. 67), he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues. [Here the main clause, "that he will inflict punishment," is contained in minatur.]
prohibitio tollendi, nisi pactus esset, vim adhibebat pactioni (id. iv. 14), the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.
d. With a reason or an explanatory fact introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) : as,

Favonius mihi quod defendissem leviter succensuit (Att.iii. I), Favonius gently chided me for my defence.
Pætus omnes libros quos pater suus reliquisset mihi donavit (id.), Patus presented me all the books his father had left.
Remark. - Under this head, even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the subjunctive. So also with quod, even the verb of saying may take the subjunctive. To this use also belong non quia, non quod, introducing a reason expressly to deny it. Non quo, non quin, introduce a result clause, but with nearly the same meaning as non quod: as,
pugiles ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia . . . (Tusc. ii. 23), boxers groan not with pain, but, dec.
non quia philosophia . . . percipi non posset (id. i. r), not that philosophy cannot be found, de.
non quoniam hoc sit necesse (Verr. ii. 9), not that this is necessary.
Note. - This usage probably originates in apodosis, the condition being the supposed truth of the speaker, the main subject.
2. A clause depending upon another subjunctive clause (or equivalent Infinitive) will also take the subjunctive if it is regarded as an integral part of that clause : as,
non pugnabo quominus utrum velis eligas (Div. C. 18), I will not oppose your taking which you will.
imperat, dum res adjudicetur, hominem ut asservent: cum judicatum sit, ad se adducant (Verr. iv. 22), he orders them while the affair is under judgment, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him.
etenim quis tam dissoluto animo est, qui hæc cum videat, tacere ac neglegere possit (Rosc. Am. II), for who is so reckless of spirit, that when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?
si tibi hoc Siculi dicerent, nonne id dicerent quod cuivis probare deberent (Div. C. 6), if the Sicilians said this to you, would they not say a thing which they must prove to everybody?
mos est Athenis laudari in contione eos qui sint in proeliis interfecti (Or. 44), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle.
Note. - The subjunctive in this use is either a Protasis or Apodosis, and partakes of the nature of the clause on which it depends, - or at least of its original nature. In all cases except purpose and result, this is clearly seen. In these, the case is undoubtedly the same; as the Purpose has, of course, a future sense, and the Result is a branch of apodosis. (See "Essay on the Latin Subjunctive," page 27.)

It is often difficult to distinguish between this construction and the preceding. Thus, in imperat ut ea fiant que opus essent, essent may stand for sunt, and then will be Indirect Discourse (under 1, b) ; or it may stand for erunt, and will then be Protasis (under 2).

## 67. Indirect Discourse.

A Direct Quotation is one which gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer. An Indirect Quotation is one which adapts the original words to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted.

Remark. - The term Indirect Discourse (oratio obliqua) is used to designate all clauses - even single clauses in a sentence of different construction - which indirectly express the word or thought of any person other than the speaker or writer, or even his own under other circumstances. But it is more strictly used to include those cases only in which the form of Indirect Quotation is given to some complete proposition or citation, which may be extended to a narrative or address of any length, - as found in the Speeches of Cæsar and Livy, - the form being dependent on some word of saying, \&c., with which it is introduced.

The term Dimect Discounse (oratio recta) includes all other forms of expression, whether narration, question, exclama. command.

1. Indirect Narrative. In a Declaratory Sentence in indirect discourse, the principal verb is in the Infinitive, and its subject in the Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive: as,
esse nonnullos quorum auctoritas plurimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), there are some, whose influence most prevails. [In direct discourse, sunt nonnulli . . . valet.]
nisi jurâsset, scefus se facturum [esse] arbitrabatur (Verr. i. 47), he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath [direct, nisi juravero, faciam].
Stoici negant quidquam esse bonum, nisi quod honestum sit (Fin. ii. 21), the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right. [The verb nego is used in preference to dico with a negative.]
a. Subject-Accusative. The subject of the infinitive in Indirect Discourse must regularly be expressed, even though it is wanting in the Direct: as,
orator sum, I am an orator; [dicit] se esse oratorem, [he says] he is an orator.
But rarely, it is omitted, when it would be easily understood: as,
ignoscere imprudentiæ dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.
rogavi pervenissentne Agrigentum : dixit pervenisse (Verr. iv. 12), I asked whether they [the curtains] had come to Agrigentum: he answered that they had.
Remark. - After a relative, or quam (than), where the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative : as,
te suspicor eisdem rebus quibus meipsum commoveri (Cat. M. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things.as I.
b. Relative Clauses. A subordinate clause merely explanatory, and containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative. It often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he will use the indicative or subjunctive : as,
quis neget hæc omnia quæ videmus deorum potestate administrari (Cat. iii. 9), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?
cujus ingenio putabat ea quæ gesserat posse celebrari (Arch.9), by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated. [Here the fact expressed by qua gesserat, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: qua gessisset would mean, what Marius thought he had done.]

Remark. - Some clauses introduced by relatives are really independent, and take the accusative and infinitive. Rarely, also, subordinate clauses take this construction. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with quam: as,

Marcellus requisivisse dicitur Archimedem illum, quem cum audisset interfectum permoleste tulisse (Verr. iv. 58), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.
unumquemque nostrum censent philosophi mundi esse partem, ex quo [ = et ex eo] illud naturâ consequi (Fin. iii. 19), the philosophers say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.
quemadmodum si non dedatur obses pro rupto se foedus habiturum, sic deditam inviolatam ad suos remissurum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he will consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.
addit se prius occisum iri ab eo quam me violatum iri (Att. ii. 20), he adds that he himself zvill be killed by him, before 1 shall be injured.
The subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see § 70).
c. Conditional Sentences. In a conditional sentence, the Indicative in Apodosis is in any case represented by the gorresponding tense of the Infinitive. The Subjunctive is represented by the Future Participle with fuisse for the pluperfect, and the Future Infinitive for the other tenses (compare the use of the participle in urus with fui for the pluperfect subjunctive). The Protasis, as a dependent clause, is in all cases Subjunctive: as,
se non defuturum [esse] pollicetur, si audacter dicere velint (B. C. i. 1), he promises not to fail, if they wuill speak their minds boldly [non deëro si voletis].
Note. - The future infinitive, representing the imperfect subjunctive in Protasis, is for some reason very rare, and only four or five examples occur in classic authors. On the contrary, the form with fuisse is quite common.
d. Questions. A Question coming immediately after a verb of asking or the like is treated as an Indirect Question (sec below, 2) ; but questions - generally rhetorical - coming in course of a long indirect discourse are treated like Declaratory Sentences: as,
num etiam recentium injuriarum memoriam [se] deponere posse (B. G. i. 14], could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [num possum?]
quem signum daturum fugientibus? quem ausurum Alexandro succedere (Q.C. iii. 5), who will give the signal on the retreat? who will dare to succeed Alexander?

Remark. - Generally real questions, expecting an answer (chiefly in the second person), take the subjunctive. Questions asked by the dubitative subjunctive must retain the subjunctive (see $2, b$ ) : as,
quid sibi vellent (B. G. i. 44), what did they want? Equid vultis?]
2. Indirect Questions. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive: as,
quid ipse sentiam exponam (Div. i. 6), $I$ will explain what $I$ think [direct, quid sentio].
id possetne fieri consuluit (id. 7), he consulted whether it could be done [direct, potestne].
quam sis audax omnes intellegere potuerunt (Rosc. Am. 31), all could understand how bold you are.
doleam necne doleam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 12), it is of no account whether I suffer or not.
incerti quidnam esset (Jug. 49), uncertain what it was.
Remark. - An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause, introduced by an interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, or particle), depending immediately on a verb, or on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt.

In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative, as in the third example given above.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The Future Indicative is represented in indirect questions by the participle in urus with the subjunctive of esse, - rarely by the simple subjunctive: as,
prospicio qui concursus futuri sint (Div. in Cæc.), I foresee what throngs there will be [erunt].
quid sit futurum cras, fuge quærere (Hor. Od. i. 9), forbear to ask what will be on the morrow [erit, or futurum est].
b. The Dubitative Subjunctive referring to future time remains unchanged except in tense: as,
[quæritur] utrum Carthago diruatur, an Carthaginiensibus reddatur (De Inv. i. 12), [the question is] shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians.
nec quisquam satis certum habet, quid aut speret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7), nor is any one assured what he shall hope or fear. [Here the participle with sit could not be used.]
incerto quid peterent aut vitarent (Liv. xxviii. 36), since it was doubtful [abl. abs] what they should seek or shun.
c. The Subject of an indirect question is often, in colloquial usage and in poetry, attracted into the main clause as Object (accusative of anticipation): as,
nôsti Marcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), you know how slow Marcellus is. - In like manner,
potestne igitur earum rerum quare futuræ sint ulla esse præsensio (Div. ii. 5), can there be, then, any foreknowledge as to those things, why they will occur?
Remark. - In some cases the Object becomes Subject by a change of voice, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative construction is the result : as,
quidam sæpe in parvâ pecuniâ perspiciuntur quam sint leves (Læl. 17), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are.
quemadmodum Pompeium oppugnarent a me indicati sunt (Leg. Ag. i. 2), it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey.
d. In early Latin and poetry, questions which elsewhere would have the Subjunctive as indirect often have the Indicative : as,
non reputat quid laboris est (Amph. 172), he does not consider what a task it is.
vineaın quo in agro conseri oportet sic observato (Cato R.R 6), in what soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.
Note. - These cases are usually considered Direct questions; but they occur (as above) where the question cannot be translated as direct without distortion of the meaning.
e. A few expressions properly interrogative are used idiomatically as indefinites, and do not take a subjunctive: such are nescio quis, \&c., mirum (or nimirum) quam or quantum, immane quantum, \&c.: as,
qui istam nescio quam indolentiam magnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 6), who greatly extol that painlessness (whatever it is). mirum quantum profuit (Liv. ii. 1), it helped marvellously.
$f$. Occasionally, a virtual indirect question is introduced by si in the sense of whether (like if in English) : as,
circtimfunduntur hostes, si quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.
visam si domi est (Heaut. 118), I will go see if he is at home.
3. Indirect Commands. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in indirect discourse : as,
reminisceretur veteris incommodi populi Romani (B. G. 13), remember [said he] the ancient disaster, \&c. [reminiscere].
ne committeret ut (ib.), do not [said he] bring it about [ne commiseris].
finem orandi faciat (id. 20), let him make an end of entreaty [fac].

The following example may serve to illustrate some of the foregoing principles in a connected address: -

## Indirect Discourse.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faceret, in eam partem ituros atque ibi futuros Helvetios, -ubi eos Cæsar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sin bello persequi perseveraret, reminisceretur et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinæ virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus esset, cum ii qui flumen transîssent suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut suce magno opere virtuti tribueret, aut ipsos despiceret: se ita a patribus majoribusque suis didicisse, ut magis virtute quam dolo contenderent, aut insidiis niterentur. Quare ne committeret, ut is locus ubi constitissent ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen caperet, aut memoriam proderet. - B. G. i. 13 .

## Direct Discourse.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faciet, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erunt Helvetii, ubi eos Cæsar constiterit atque esse voluerit: sin bello persequi s perseverabit, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinæ virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus $e s$, cum ii qui flumen transierant suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut tuæ magno opere virtuti tribueris, aut nos despexeris: nos ita a patribus majoribusque nostris didicimus, ut magis virtute quam dolo contendamus, aut insidiis nitamur. Quare, ne commiseris, ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen capiat, aut memoriam prodat.

## 68. Wishes and Commands.

1. Wishes are expressed by the Subjunctive, often strengthened by the particles ut, utinam, 0 si (early Latin), qui; the primary tenses being used in reference to future time, the secondary to express a hopeless wish, - the imperfect in present time, the pluperfect in past (see § 57,4 ).

Remark. - A periphrasis with velim, vellem, \&c., is sometimes used $(57,4, c)$.
2. Commands are expressed by the Imperative or Subjunctive (§57, 3, 7) ; Prohibitions by the Subjunctive, or by a periphrasis with noli or cave (§57, 7, a). The object of the command is given in a purpose-clause $(\S 70,3)$ with ut or ne, except after jubeo and veto (§70, 2).
3. Indirectly quoted, all these forms of speech take the Subjunctive (see § 67, 3).

## 69. Relative Clauses.

1. A simple relative, merely introducing a descriptive fact, takes the Indicative.
2. The Subjunctive appears more or less frequently in many relative clauses (which have been already treated). These relatives always either - (1) are general relatives of Protasis; or (2) express some logical connection between the relative and antecedent, or (3) have no effect at all upon the construction. These constructions are -
3. General or Future Conditions in Protasis ( $\$ 5 \mathbf{5 9}, 60,61$ ).
4. a. Final Clauses (§ 64).
b. Consecutive Clauses (§ 65).
c. Relatives of Characteristic ( $\S 65,2$ ).
d. Relatives implying Cause or Hindrance ( $\S \mathbf{6 5}, \mathbf{2}$, e).
$e$. Temporal Clauses of relative time $(62,2)$.
5. a. Intermediate Clauses (§ 66).
b. Clauses in Indirect Discourse (§ 67).

## 70. Substantive Clauses.

A Substantive Clause is one which, like a noun, is the subject or object of a verb, or in apposition with a subject or object.

Remark. - The Infinitive with the Accusative, though not strictly a Clause, is equivalent to one, and may be treated as such.

When a substantive clause is used as Subject, the verb to which it is subject is called Impersonal (§ 39), and its sign, in English, is IT; when it is used as Object, it generally follows some verb of knowing, $\S c .(\S 67,1)$ or of wishing or effecting, and its sign, in English, is that, or to (Infinitive).

1. Classification. Substantive Clauses are of four kinds :-1. The Accusative with the Infinitive, denoting an idea as thought or spoken (§ 67, 1) ; 2. Indirect Questions $(67,2)$; 3. The Subjunctive with ut, ne, quo, quin, or
quominus, denoting purpose or result; 4. The Indicative with quod, denoting a fact. But the Infinitive alone may take the place of either 1 or 3 .
2. Accusative and Infinitive. The Accusative with the Infinitive is used as the Object-1. Of all verbs and expressions of knowing, thinking, and telling (Indirect Discourse, § 67, 1) ; 2. Of jubeo and veto, and rarely of other verbs of commanding, requesting, admonishing, and the like; 3. Sometimes of verbs of wishing: as,
dicit montem ab hostibus teneri (B. G. i. 22), he says that the height is held by the enemy.
negat ullos patere portus (Liv. xxviii. 43), he says that no ports are open.
Labienum jugum montis adscendere jubet (id. 2I), he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.
judicem esse me non doctorem volo (Ov. 33), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.
a. After Passives. If the main verb is changed to the passive, either (1) the Subject of the infinitive (like other objects of active verbs) becomes nominative, and the infinitive is retained; or (2) the passive is used impersonally, and the clause retained as its Object. With verbs of saying, \&ce, the former construction is more common, especially in the tenses of incomplete action; with jubeo and veto it is always used: as,
primi traduntur arte quadam verba vinxisse (Or. 13), they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.
jussus es renuntiari consul (Phil. ii. 32), you were under orders to be declared consul.
in lautumias Syracusanas deduci imperantur (Verr. v. 27), they are ordered to be taken to the stone-pits of Syracuse.
hic accusare non est situs (Sest. 44), he was not allowed to accuse.
predicari de se ac nominari volunt (Arch. ro), they wish to be talked of and known by name. [Here the passive is used impersonally.]
voluntariâ morte interîsse creditus est (Tac. H. iv. 67), he was thought to have perished by voluntary death.
nuntiatur piratarum naves esse in portu (Verr. v. 24), it is told that the ships of the pirates are in port.
b. The poets extend the use of the passive to verbs which are not properly verba sentiendi: as,
colligor dominæ placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6, 61), it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.
c. Such indirect discourse may depend on any word implying speech or thought, though not strictly a verb of saying, \&c.: as, eos redire jubet: se in tempore adfuturum esse (Liv. xxiv. 13), he orders them to return [promising] that he will be at hand in season.
orantes ut urbibus saltén - jam enim agros deploratos esse opem senatus ferret (id. xvi. 6), praying that the senate would bring aid to the cities - for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.
d. Verbs of promising, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom (§ 67, I, $\alpha$ ); but sometimes a simple complementary infinitive : as,
me spero liberatum [esse] metu (Tusc. ii. 27), I trust I have been freed from fear.
minatur sese abire (Asin. iii. 3), he threatens to go away. [Direct, abeo, I am going away.]
ex quibus sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos (Læl. 21), from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage.
quem inimicissimum futurum esse promitto ac spondeo (Mur. 41), who I promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies.
dolor fortitudinem se debilitaturum minatur (Tusc. v. 27), pain threatens to wear down fortitude.
pollicentur obsides dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages [compare Greek aorist infinitive after similar verbs.]
3. Clauses of Purpose. The clause with ut (negative ne), developed from purpose, is used as the Object of all verbs denoting an action directed towards the future. Such are -
a. Verbs of commanding, asking, admonishing, urging, and in general those denoting an influence upon some one (§ 64). These verbs rarely take the Infinitive (except jubeo and veto, which take it regularly) : as,
his uti conquirerent imperavit (B. G. i. 2), he ordered them to search.
monent ut omnes suspiciones vitet (id. 20), he warns him to avoid all suspicion.
b. Verbs of wishing and the like. These take also the simple Infinitive; more commonly when the subject remains the same, less commonly when it is different (see 2, above) : as,
cupio ut impetret (Capt. i. 2), I wish he may get it.
cum nostri perspici cuperent (B. G. iii. 2I), when our men wished it to be seen.
mallem Cerberum metueres (Tusc. i. 6), I would rather you feared Cerberus.
quos non tam ulcisci studeo quam sanare (Cat.ii. 8), whom $I$ do not care so much to punish as to cure.
c. Verbs of permission, concession, and necessity. These take also the Infinitive: as,
permisit ut partes faceret (De Or. ii. 90), permitted him to make divisions.
vinum importari non sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.
nullo se implicari negotio passus est (Lig. 3), he suffered himself to be tangled in no business.
sint enim oportet si miseri sunt (Tusc. i 6), they must exist, if they are wretched.
Remark. - The clause with licet (usually without ut) is regularly used to express a concession in the sense of although.
d. Verbs of determining, resolving, bargaining, which also take the Infinitive. Those of decreeing often take the participle in dus, on the principle of indirect discourse: as,
edicto ne quis injussu pugnaret (Liv. v. 19), having commanded that none should fight without orders.
pacto ut victorem res sequeretur (id. xxviii. 21), having bargained that the property should belong to the victor.
Regulus captivos reddendos non censuit (Off. i. 13), Regulus voted that the captives should be returned. [He said, in giving his opinion, captivi non reddendi sunt.]
$\boldsymbol{e}$. Verbs of caution and effort. Those denoting an effort to hinder may also take quominus or ne: as,
cura et provide ut nequid ei desit (Att. ii. 3), take care and see that he lacks notheng.
non deterret sapientem mors quominus... (Tusc. i. 38), death does not deter the wise man from, dec.
ne facerem impedivit (Fat. i. I), prevented me from doing.
f. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with ne affirmative and ne non or ut negative: as,
ne animum offenderet verebatur (B. G. i. 19), he feared he should offend the mind, \&cc.
vereor ut tibi possim concedere (De Or. i. 9), I fear I cannot grant you.
haud sane periculum est ne non mortem optandam putet (Tusc. v. 40), there is no danger of his not thinking death desirable.
Remark. - The particle ut or ne is often omitted, - generally after verbs of wishing, necessity, permission; with cave, dic, fac; and in indirect discourse, frequently after verbs of commanding and the like.
g. With any verbs of the above classes, the poets may use the Infinitive: as,
hortamur fari (※n. ii. 74), we exhort [him] to speak.
4. Clauses of Result. The clause with ut (negative ut non, \&c.), developed from result, is used as the Object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort: as,
commeatus ut portari possent efficiebat (B. G. ii. 5), he made it possible that supplies could be bought. [Lit., he effected that, \&c.]
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The substantive clause becomes the Subject of such verbs in the passive; and hence is further used as the subject of verbs denoting it happens, it remains, it follows, and the like; and even of the simple esse in the same sense, and other phrases: as,
sequitur ut doceam (N. D. ii. 32), the next thing is to show, dec. accidit ut esset plena luna (B. G. iv. 29), it chanced to be full moon.
accedit ut conturber (Deiot. x), besides this I am troubled.
reliquum est quarta virtus ut sit ipsa frugalitas (id.), it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift.
quando fuit ut quod licet non liceret (Cæl. 20), when was it that what is now allowed was not allowed?
b. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam, after a comparative: as,
perpessus est omnia potius quam indicaret (Tusc. i. 22), he endured all, rather than betray, dec.
c. A result clause with ut is often used elliptically, in exclamations, with or without -ne (compare § 57, 8, g) : as,
quanquam quid loquor? te ut ulla res frangat (Cat. i. 9), yet why do I ask? that anything should bend you!
egone ut te interpellem (Tusc. ii. 18), what, I interrupt you ?
Remark. - The infinitive, in exclamations, usually refers to something actually occurring; the subjunctive to something contemplated.
d. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], besides a subject-clause (substantive) with ut, regularly takes another ut-clause (of result) depending on tantum : as,
tantum abest ut nostra miremur, ut usque eo difficiles ac morosi simus, ut nobis non satisfaciat ipse Demosthenes (Or. 29), so far from admiring our own matters, we are difficult and captious to that degree, that not Demosthenes himself satisfies us. [Here the first ut-clause depends directly on abest; the second on tantum; and the third on usque eo.]
e. The expressions facere ut, committere ut, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb (compare fore ut for the future infinitive) : as,
invitus feci ut Flamininum e senatu eicerem (Cat. M. 12), it was with reluctance that I expelled, dec.
$f$. Rarely, a thought or idea is considered as a result, and takes the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive (in this case a demonstrative usually precedes) : as,
altera est res, ut . . . (Off. i. 20), the second point is that, \&c.
præclarum illud est, ut eos ... amemus (Tusc. iii. 29), this is a noble thing, that we should love, dec.
quæ est igitur amentia, ut . . . what folly is there then in demanding, dec.
g. Verbs and other expressions which imply hindering and the like, may take quin when the main verb is negative, formally or virtually : as,
facere non possum quin . . (Att. xii. 27), I cannot avoid, \&ec. nihil prætermisi quin scribam...(Q.F. iii, 3), I have left nothing undone to write.
ut nullâ re impedirer quin (Att. iv. 2), that I might be hindered by nothing from, \&cc.
non humana ulla neque divina obstant quin (Sall. Ep. Mith. 17), no human or divine laws prevent, but that, dec.

Remark. - This usage is found especially with the phrase non dubito and similar expressions making a kind of indirect discourse : as,
non dubitabat quin ei crederemus (Att. vi. 2), he did not doubt that we believed him.
illud cave dubites quin ego omnia faciam (Fam. v. 20), do not doubt that I. will do all.
quis ignorat quin (Flacc. 27), who is ignorant that, dec. ?
neque ambigitur quin Brutus pessimo publico id facturus fuerit si priorum regum alicui regnum extorsisset (Livy, ii. I), nor is there any question that Brutus, if he had wrested the kingdom from any one of the former kings, would have done it with the worst results to the state [direct discourse, fecisset].
h. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying as well as of commanding or effecting and the like, and may be construed accordingly : as,
sequitur illico esse causas immutabiles (Fat. 12), it follows directly that there are unalterable causes. [The regular construction with sequor used of a logical sequence.]
laudem sapientiæ statuo esse maximam (Div. v. I3), I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest.
statuunt ut decem milia hominum mittantur (B. G. xii. 21), they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent.
res ipsa monebat tempus esse (Att. x. 8), the thing itself warned that it was time [monere ut, warn to do something].
fac mihi esse persuasum (N. D. i. 27), suppose that I am persuaded of that [facere ut, accomplish that].
hoc volunt persuadere non interire animos (B. G. vi. I3), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.
huic persuadet uti ad hostes transeat (B. G. iii. 18), persuades him to pass over to the enemy.
Note. - The infinitive, with a subject, in this construction is indirect discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs.
5. Indicative with quod. The clause in the Indicative with quod is used (more commonly as Subject) when the statement is regarded as a fact: as,
alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis magnum studium conferunt (Off. i. 6), it is another fault, that some bestow too much zeal, dec. [Here ut with the subjunctive could be used, meaning that they should, or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to more abstractly; quod makes it a fact that men $d o, \& \mathrm{c}$.]
inter inanimum et animal hoc maxime interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Ac. ii. 12), there is this chief difference, \&ec., that an animal has an aim.
quod rediit nobis mirabile videtur (Off. iii. 3 r), that he [Regulus] returned seems wonderful to us. [Redîsse would mean he should have returned.]
$\boldsymbol{a}$. In colloquial language, the clause with quod appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English whereas: as,
quod de domo scribis (Fam. xiv. 2), as to what you write of the house.
quod mihi de nostro statu gratularis, minime miramur te tuis præclaris operibus lætari (Att. i. 5), as to your congratulating me on our condition, no wonder you are pleased with your prwn noble works.
b. Verbs of feeling and its expression take either quod (quia) or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse) : as, quod scribis... gaudeo (Q.F.iii. r). I am glad that you write. quæ perfecta esse vehementer lætor (Rosc. Am. 47), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.
facio libenter quod eam non possum præterire (Leg. i. 24). I am glad that I cannot pass it by.
Remark. - Rarely, an apparent substantive clause, with miror and similar expressions, is introduced by si (really a Protasis) : as,
miror si quemquam amicum habere potuit (Læl. 15), I should wonder if he could ever have a friend.

## 71. Questions.

Questions are introduced by Interrogative Pronouns, Adverbs, or Particles, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.

The Interrogative Particles are, an, utrum, num, and the enclitic -ne (see page 86). For other interrogative words, see list, page 49.

1. Interrogative Particles. The enclitic -ne is used in questions asked for information merely; nonne, when the answer yes, and num when the answer no, is expected or implied: as,
meministine me in senatu dicere (Cat. i. 3), do you remember my saying in the senate?
nonne animadvertis quam multi salvi pervenerint ( N . D. iii. 37), do you not observe how many have come through safe?
num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 37), there is no doubt, is there?
Remark. - The interrogative particle is sometimes omitted: as,
patere tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your plans are manifest?
a. In Indirect Questions, num loses its peculiar force: as, quæro num aliter evenirent (Fat. 3). I ask whether they would turn out differently.
b. The form of Indirect questions is the same as that of Direct; the difference being only in the verb, which regularly takes the subjunctive (§ 71, 2).

Remark. - In English, indirect questions are introduced by interrogatives, or by the particle whether.
c. The enclitic -ne is often added to interrogative words when not required: as, utrumne, numne, anne.
d. The expressions nescio an, dubito an, and the like, incline to the Affirmative, $-I$ don't know but.
2. Double Questions. In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or ; annon, necne, or not, in the second: as,
utrum nescis, an pro nihilo id putas (Fam. x. 26), don't you know? or do you think nothing of it?
quæro servosne an liberos (Rosc. Am. 27). I ask whether slaves or free. [Here servos aut liberos would mean, were there $a n y$, either slaves or free.]
Remark. - In direct questions, annon is more frequently found in the alternative; in indirect, neene.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; when -ne (anne, neene) may stand in the second: as,

Gabinio dicam anne Pompeio (Manil. 19), shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey?
sunt hæc tua verba necne (Tusc. iii. 18), are these your words or not?
0. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied; and an (anne) alone asks a question - usually with indignation or surprise: as,
an tu miseros putas illos (Tusc. i. 7), what! do you think those men wretched?
c. The second member may be omitted, when utrum asks a question to which there is no alternative: as,
utrum in clarissimis est civibus is quem. . . (Flacc. 19), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, dec.
d. The following exhibits the various forms of alternative questions:-

| utrum $\quad .$. an |
| :--- |
| -ne $\quad \ldots$ an (anne) |

3. Question and Answer. As there is no word in Latin meaning simply yes or no, in answering a question the verb is generally repeated : as,
valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).
eratne tecum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).
$\boldsymbol{a}$. An intensive or negative particle is sometimes used in answer to a direct question: thus immo (nay but), vero (in truth), or etiam (even so) may have the meaning of yes; and non (not), or minime (least-of-all), of no.
b. In the answer to an alternative question, one member of the alternative must be repeated: as,
tune an frater erat, was it you or your brother? ego [eram], it was $I$.
Note. - Tune aut pater would mean, was it either of you?

## 72. Participles.

The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an adjective; but has a partial distinction of tense, and generally governs the case of its verb.

1. Distinctions of Tense. The Present participle denotes the action as not completed; the Perfect as completed; the Future as still to take place.
a. Present. The Present participle has several of the irregular uses of the present indicative (compare § 58, 2) : as,
quærenti mihi jamdiu certa res nulla veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13), thoughl 1 had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind (cf. ib. a).
C. Flaminio restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. M. 4), he resisted Flaminius while attempting to divide, ©ec. (cf. b).
ien's in Pompeianum bene mane hæc scripsi (Att. iv. 9), $I$ write this when about going to my place at Pompeii (cf. c).
Hence it is used in late writers to denote purpose.
b. Perfect. The Perfect participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present. Such are, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, fisus, ausus, secutus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers : as,
cohortatus milites docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed, lac.
iratus dixisti (Mur. 30), you spoke in a passion.
oblitus auspicia (Phil. i. 13), forgetting the auspices.
insidias veritus (B. G. ii. II), fearing ambuscade.
imperio potitus (Liv. xxi. 2), holding the command.
ad pugnam congressi (id. iv. 10), meeting in fight.
rem incredibilem rati (Sall. C. 48), thinking it incredible.
c. The present participle, wanting in the Passive, is usually supplied by a clause with dum or cum; rarely by the participle in dus: as,
Dic, hospes, Spartæ, nos te hic vidisse jacentes,
Dum sanctis patrix legibus obsequimur.
Tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that we lie here obedient to our country's sacred laws. [Here dum obsequimur is a transla-

crucibus adfixi aut flammandi (Ann. xv. 44), crucified or set on fire [compare note under § 73].
2. Adjective use. The present and perfect participles are used sometimes as attributes, nearly like adjectives: as,
cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobatam (Div. i. 5), a view at once most ancient and approved.
signa nunquam fere ementientia (id. 9), signs hardly ever deceitful.
auspiciis utuntur coactis (id. 15), they use forced auspices.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Thus they are used, like adjectives, as nouns: as,
sibi indulgentes et corpori deservientes (Leg. i. 13), the selfindulgent, and slaves to the body.
recte facta paria esse debent (Par. iii. r), right deeds ought to be like in value.
male parta male dilabuntur (Phil. ii. 27), ill got, ill spent.
consuetudo valentis (De Or. ii. 44), the habit of a man in health.
b. So, also, they are connected with nouns by esse and similar verbs: as,
videtis ut senectus sit operosa et semper agens aliquid et moliens (Cat. M. 8), you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something.
Gallia est omnis divisa (B. G. i. r), all Gaul is divided.
locus qui nunc sæptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.
c. From this adjective use arise the compound tenses of the passive, - the participle of completed action with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as,
interfectus est, he was (or has been) killed, lit., he is having-been-killed [i.e., already slain].
d. In the best writers (as Cicero) this participle, when used with the tenses of completed action, retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as, amatus sum or fui) are often used indiscriminately: as,
[leges] cum quæ latæ sunt tum vero quæ promulgatæ fuerunt (Sest. 25), the laws, both those which were proposed, and those which were published. [The proposal of the laws was a single act: hence lates sunt is a pure perfect. The publishing, or posting, was a continued state, which is indicated by promulgata, and fuerunt is the pure perfect.] -
arma quæ fixa in parietibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 34), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground. [Compare occupati sunt et fuerunt (Off. i. 17): the difference between this and the preceding is, that occupatus can be used only as an adjective.]
3. Predicate use. The Present and Perfect participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a clause
would be used to express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic, manner, circumstance: as,
vereor ne turpe sit dicere incipientem (Mil. I), I fear it may be a dishonor [to me] when beginning to speak.
salutem insperantibus reddidisti (Marc. 7), you have restored a safety which we did not hope.
nemo ei neganti non credidisset (Mil. 19), no one would have disbelieved him when he denied.
Remark. - This use is especially frequent in the Ablative Absolute (see § 54, ro, $b$ and Note). A co-ordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle; and a participle with a negative expresses the same idea which in English is given by without: as,
imprudentibus nostris (B. G. v. 15), while our men were not looking.
miserum est nihil proficientem angi (N. D. iii. 5), it is wretched to vex one's self without effecting anything.
instructos ordines in locum æquum deducit (Sall. C. 59), he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.
ut hos transductos necaret (B. G. v. 5), that he might carry them over and put them to death.
a. A noun and passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea (compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek: G. 280): as,
ante conditam condendamve urbem (Liv. Pref.), before the city was buitt or building.
illi libertatem civium Romanorum imminutam non tulerunt; vos vitam ereptam negligetis (Manil. 5), they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their life.?
So with opus: as,
opus est viatico facto (Plaut. Trin.), there is need of laying in provision.
maturato opus est (Livy viii. I3), there is no need of haste. [Here there is no noun, as the verb is used impersonally.]
b. The perfect participle with habeo (rarely with other verbs) is almost the same in meaning as a perfect active: as,
fidem quem habent spectatam jam et diu cognitam (Div. C. 4), my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.
(Hence the perfect with have in modern languages.)
c. The perfect participle, with verbs of effecting, effort, or the like (also with volo where esse may be understood, cf. § 70, $3, b$ ), expresses more forcibly the idea of the verb: as,
prefectos suos multi missos fecerunt (Verr. iv. 58), many discharged their officers.
hic transactum reddet omne (Capt. 345), he will get it all done. me excusatum volo (Verr. i. 40), I wish to be excused.
d. The present participle is sometimes nearly equivalent to an infinitive, but expresses the action more vividly (after facio, induco, and the like, used of authors, and after verbs of sense) : as,

Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem (N. D. i. 11), Xenophon represents Socrates disputing.
4. Future Participle. The Future Participle (except futurus and venturus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The future participle is chiefly used with esse in a periphrastic conjugation (see § 40, a) : as,
morere, Diagora, non enim in cælum adscensurus es (Tusc. i. 46), die, for you are not likely to go to heaven.
conclave illud ubi erat mansurus si ... (Div. ifi5), that chamber where he would have staid if, \&c.
sperat adolescens diu se victurum (Cat. M. 19), the young man hopes to live long (§ 67, 1).
neque petiturus unquam consulatum videretur (Off. iii. 20), and seemed unlikely ever to seek the consulship.
By later writers it is also used in simple agreement to express likelihood or purpose, or even an apodosis: as,
cum leo regem invasurus incurreret (Q. C. viii. I), when a lion rushed on to attack the king.
rediit belli casum de integro tentaturus (Liv. xvii. 62), he returned to try the chances of war anew.
ausus est rem plus famæ habituram (Liv. ii. 10), he dared a thing which would have more repute.
[See also examples in § 59, r, b.]
b. With past tenses of esse, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive ( $\S 59,3, e)$.
5. Gerundive. The Gerundive, in its participial or adjective use, denotes necessity or propriety.
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun: as,
fortem et conservandum virum (Mil.38), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.
b. The most frequent use of the gerundive is with esse in a second periphrastic conjugation $(\S 40, b)$ : as, non agitanda res erit (Verr. vi. 70), will not the thing have to be agitated?

Remark. - The gerundive in this construction is passive in meaning. But in early Latin, and occasionally elsewhere, it is used impersonally, governing the accusative ; and it is regularly so used with utor, fruor, \&c., governing the ablative (sometimes called the nominative of the gerund): as,
via quam nobis ingrediendum sit (Cat. M. 2), the way we have to enter.
agitandumst vigilias (Trin. 869), I have grot to stand guard. [Compare Greek verbal in - $\tau$ éos, G. 281.]
c. It is also used to denote purpose after verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand: as,
redemptor qui columnam illam conduxerat faciendam (Div. ii.
21), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column [the regular construction with this class of verbs].
ædem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. ii. 50), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.
naves atque onera diligenter adservanda curabat (id. vi. 56), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.
For the Gerundive after verbs of decreeing, see § 70, 3, d.
For the Ablative Absolute, see § 54, io, b.

## 73. Gerund and Gerundive.

1. Gerund. The Gerund is a verbal noun, retaining the government of the verb, and modified by adverbs, but in grammatical construction following the same rules as nouns.

Remark. - The use of the Gerund, in the oblique cases, corresponds to the use of the Infinitive as Subject ( $\$ 57,8, a$ ), its nominative form being found only in the impersonal use of the participle in dus: as,
ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa dijudicandi (De Or. ii. 38), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false. [Here the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitive disserere and dijudicare.]
juveni parandum, seni utendum est (Sen. Ep. 36), it is for the young to get, for the old to enjoy (compare § 51, 3, 4).
2. Gerundive. When the gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive is generally used instead, agreeing with the noun, and in the case which the gerund would have had: as,
paratiores ad omnia pericula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with pericula, which is itself governed by ad: the construction with the gerund would be, ad subeundum, dec.; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative pericula.]
exercendæ memoriæ gratiâ (Off. i. 15), for the sake of training the memory. [Here the gerund construction would be, exercendi memoriam.]
Remark. - The verbs utor, fruor, \&c. (§ 54, 6, d), are treated like verbs governing the Accusative, as they do in early Latin: as,
expetuntur divitiæ ad perfruendas voluptates (Off. i. 8), riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasure.
Note. - The gerundive construction is probably the original one. The Participle in dus seems to have had a present passive force as in secundus (from sequor), rotundus, volvendis, annis (Virg.), flammandi (Tac.), from which the idea of necessity was developed through that of futurity, as in the development of the subjunctive. Consilium urbis delendre would thus have meant a plan of a city being destroyed [in process of destruction], then about to be destroyed, then to be destroyed, then a plan of destroying the city, the two words becoming fused together as in $a b$ urbe conditâ. The gerund is simply an impersonal use of the participle, in its original present sense, retaining the case of its verb, as in agitandum est vigilias; quid opus est facto?
3. Construction. The Gerund (if of transitive verbs, with a noun in government) and the Gerundive (with a noun in agreement) are used, in the oblique cases, in the constructions of nouns, as follows : -
$\boldsymbol{a}$. Genitive. The Genitive is used after nouns or adjectives in the constructions of the objective genitive ( $\S \mathbf{5 0}, 3$ ); more rarely in the predicate after esse, or as a genitive of quality: as,
neque consilii habendi neque arma capiendi spatio dato (B. G.
iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms [objective genitive after spatio].
ne conservandæ quidam patriæ causâ (Off. i. 45), not even in order to save the country.
vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. M. 20), it is the best end of life. non tam commutandarum rerum quam evertendarum cupidos (id. ii. x), desirous not so much of changing as of destroying. the state.
quæ res evertendæ reipublicæ solent esse (Verr. iii. 53), which things generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.
cognoscendæ antiquitatis (Ann. ii. 59), to study old times. [Here gratiâ is, by a rare construction, omitted.]
The genitive of the Gerund is, in a few cases, used (like a noun) with the genitive of an object agreeing neither in gender nor number : as,
ejus videndi cupidus (Ter. Hec.), eager to see her. Pl. Caf. 852 reiciendi trium judicum potestas (Inv. ii. 2), the power of challenging three jurors.
Remark. - In the genitive, the construction of the gerund and gerundive are about equally common.
b. Dative. The Dative is used after the adjectives (and rarely nouns) which are followed by the dative of nouns ( $(51,6)$; also, in a few expressions after verbs : as,
præesse agro colendo (Rosc. Am. 18), to take charge of tillage. esse solvendo, to be able to pay.
genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), $a$ sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.
reliqua tempora demetiendis fructibus et percipiendis accommodata sunt (Cat. M. 19), the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.
diem præstituit operi faciendo (Verr. ii. 56), he appointed a day for doing the work.
It is also used in certain phrases belonging to the civil law, after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, \&c.: as,
comitia consulibus rogandis (Div. i. 17), elections for nominating consuls.
triumvirum coloniis deducundis (Jug. 42), a triumvir for leading out colonies.
c. Accusative. The Accusative is used after the prepositions ad, inter, circa, ob (rarely in and ante); most frequently after ad, denoting purpose (compare § 72, 4) : as,
vivis non ad deponendam sed ad confirmandam audaciam
(Cat. i. 2), you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring. inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.
me vocas ad scribendum (Or. 10), you call me to write.
d. Ablative. The Ablative is used to express means or instrument; also manner (often by later writers, in a sense equivalent to the present participle); after comparatives; and after the prepositions ab, de, ex, in, and (rarely) pro and cum: as,
multa pollicendo persuadet (Jug. 46), he persuades by large promises.
his ipsis legendis (Cat. M. 7), by reading these very things.
nullum officium referendâ gratiâ magis necessarium est (Off.
i. 15), no duty is more important than gratitude.
in re gerendâ versari (Cat. M. 6), to be employed in affairs.
Latine loquendo cuivis par (Brut. 34), equal to any man in speaking Latin.
nullis virtutis præceptis tradendis (Off. i. 2), without giving any precepts of virtue.
obscuram atque humilem conciendo ad se multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.

Remark. - The gerund is occasionally found in apposition with a noun: as,
ad res diversissimas, parendum atque imperandum (Livy, xxi. 3), for the most widely different things obeying and commanding.
Note. - From the ablative of manner comes the Italian and Spanish form of the participle, the true participle form becoming an adjective.

## 74. Supine.

The Supine is a verbal noun, having no distinction of tense or person, and is limited to two uses.

Note. - The Supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension. The form in um is the accusative of the end of motion. The form in $\mathbf{u}$ is probably dative of purpose, though possibly ablative.

1. Former Supine. The Supine in um is used after verbs of motion to express the purpose of the motion; it governs the case of its verb, and is modified by adverbs : as,
quid est, imusne sessum? etsi admonitum venimus te, non flagitatum (De Or. iii. 5), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind not to entreat you.
nuptum collocâsse (B. G. i. 18), to éstablish in marriage.
venerunt questum injurias (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.
Remark. - The supine in um is used especially after eo; and with the passive infinitive iri forms the future infinitive passive (see § 55, 3, b, Rem.) : as,
fuêre cives qui rempublicam perditum irent (Sall. C. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic.
non Graiis servitum matribus ibo ( Æn. ii. 786), I shall not go in slavery to the Grecian dames.
si scîsset se trucidatum iri (Div. ii. 9), if he [Pompey] had known that he was going to be murdered.
2. Latter Supine. The Supine in $\mathbf{u}$ is used only after a few adjectives, and the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, to denote that in respect to which the quality is asserted: as,

O rem non modo visu fædam, sed etiam auditu (Phil. ii. 25), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of!
quærunt quid optimum factu sit (Verr. ii. 27), they ask what is best to do.
humanum factu aut inceptu (Andr. 236), a human thing to do or undertake.
si hoc fas est dictu (Tusc. v. I3), if this is lawful to say. So rarely with verbs : as, pudet dictu (Agric. 32), it is shame to tell.
Remark. - The supine in $\mathbf{u}$ is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with facilis, difficilis, jucundus, the construction of ad with the gerund is more common. The Infinitive is often used in the same signification, by the poets, with all these adjectives.

## 75. General Rules of Syntax.

1. Nouns meaning the same thing agree in case (§46).
2. Adjectives agree with Nouns in gender, number, and case (47).
3. Possessive Adjectives are used for the genitive, and in any case may have a genitive in agreement $(47,5)$.
4. Relatives agree with their antecedents in gender and number; their case depending on the construction of their clause (48).
5. A Verb agrees with its Subject in number and person (49).
6. Two or more singular subjects - also collective nouns, with quisque and uterque - may take a plural verb (49, 1).
7. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative $(49,2)$.
8. A Noun used to limit or define another is in the Genitive (50).
9. The Genitive is used to denote the author, owner, source, and (with adjectives) measure or quality (50, 1).
10. Words denoting a part are followed by the genitive of the whole to which the part belongs $(50,2)$.
11. Certain adjectives of Quantity are used in the genitive to express indefinite Value (50, $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{i}$ ). .
12. Many words of memory and feeling, knowledge or ignorance, fulness and want, - also verbals and participles used as adjectives, - govern the genitive $(50,3)$.
13. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the genitive of the charge or penalty $(50,4, b)$.
14. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (51).
15. Words of likeness, fitness, nearness, service, or help are followed by the dative $(51,5,6)$.
16. Verbs meaning to favor, help, please, serve, trust, and their contraries, - also to believe, persuade, command, obey, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, - govern the dative (51, 2, a).
17. The Dative is used after esse, to be, to denote the $O$ wner $(51,3)$.
18. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, præ, pro, sub, super, govern the Dative (51, 2, d).
19. Verbs of giving, telling, sending, and the like - and sometimes of comparing and taking away - govern the accusative and dative (51, I).
20. The dative is used to denote the purpose or end; often with another dative of the person or thing affected $(51,5)$.
21. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object (52).
22. The subject of the Infinitive mood is in the accusative $(52,4, b)$.
23. Time how long and Distance how far are in the accusative.
24. The accusative is used adverbially, or for specification $(52,3)$.
25. Verbs of naming, choosing, asking, and teaching govern two accusatives (52, 2).
26. The Ablative is used of cause, manner, means, instrument, quality, specification, and price (54).
27. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is in the ablative with $a b(54,4)$.
28. Words denoting separation and plenty or want - also opus and usus signifying need - govern the ablative (54, i).
29. Participles denoting birth or origin govern the ablative $(54,2, a)$.
30. The adjectives dignus, indignus, - with many verbals, as contentus, fretus, lætus, præditus, - govern the ablative $(54,3, a ; 10, a)$.
31. The deponents utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds, govern the ablative $(54,6, d)$.
32. Comparatives may take the ablative instead of quam, than.
33. Degree of Difference is put in the ablative $(54,6, e)$.
34. Time at or within which is put in the ablative $(55,1)$.
35. Ablative Absolute. A Subject and Predicate in the ablative are used to define the time or circumstances of an action.
36. The name of the Town where is in form like the Genitive of singular names in us, a, um, otherwise Dative or Ablative; that whither in the Accusative, and whence in the Ablative.
So of domus, rus (also humi, belli, militia), and many names of Islands.
37. With other words (including names of Countries) Prepositions are used to denote where, whither, or whence.
38. The Infinitive is used like a neuter noun, as the Subject or Object, or to complete the action of a verb (57, 8, a).
39. The Infinitive, with subject-accusative, is regularly used after verbs of knowing, thinking, telling, and the like (57, 8, e).
40. Historical Infinitive. The Infinitive is often used for tenses of the indicative in narration (57, 8, h).
41. The Gerund, governing the case of its verb, or the Gerundive in agreement with a noun, has the construction of a verbal noun.
42. The Supine in um is used after verbs of motion; the Supine in $\mathbf{u}$ after adjectives.
43. The Subjunctive is used independently to denote a wish, command, or concession (57, 2).
44. Relatives or Conjunctions implying purpose or result, - also relative clauses of characteristic, - require the Subjunctive.
45. Indirect Questions take a verb in the subjunctive $(67,2)$.
46. The Subjunctive present and perfect are used in future conditions; the imperfect and pluperfect in those contrary to fact.
47. Dependent clauses in Indirect Discourŝe, or in a subjunctive construction, take the subjunctive.
48. In the sequence of Tenses, primary tenses are followed by primary, and secondary by secondary (58, 10).

## 76. Arrangement.

In Latin the words do not follow the order of construction, yet they have a regular arrangement. This, however, is constantly modified for emphasis, harmony, and clearness.

1. Normal Order. Regularly the subject stands first, followed by its modifiers ; the verb last, preceded by the words which depend upon it: as,
civis Romanus sum. (not sum civis Romanus).
voluptates blandissimæ dominæ majores partes animi a virtute detorquent (Off. ii. io).
a. A predicate nominative, as the most important part of the predicate, is often placed after the copula: as, qui Athenis est mortuus (id. 24).
hæc ad judicandum sunt facillima (id. iii. 6).
b. The forms of esse meaning there is, \&cc., often come first in the sentence: as,
sunt quædam officia quæ aliis magis quam aliis debeantur (Off. i. 18).
c. A numeral adjective, or one essential to the meaning of the phrase, goes before its noun; one simply descriptive commonly follows: as,
omnes homines decet.
est viri magni rebus agitatis punire sontes (Off. i. 24).
omnis actio vacare debet temeritate et neglegentiâ (id. 29).
cum aliquâ perturbatione (id. i. 38 ).
Lælius et sapiens et amicitiæ gloriâ excellens (Læl. I).
d. A Demonstrative pronoun precedes the noun, Relatives stand first in their sentence or clause, Adverbs stand directly before the word they qualify.
2. Emphasis. Inversion of the above order gives emphasis.
a. Particularly the verb comes first and the subject last. This makes either or both emphatic : as, dicebat idem C. Curio (Off. ii. 17).
b. Any word closely connected with the preceding sentence comes first, and with the following last : as,
ac duabus iis personis quas supra dixi tertia adjungitur (Off. i. 32 ).
objecit [Cato] ut probrum M. Nobiliori quod is in provinciam poëtas duxisset; duxerat autem consul ille in Etoliam ut scimus Ennium (Tusc. i. 2).
maxime perturbantur officia in amicitiis; quibus et non tribuere quod recte possis, et tribuere quod non sit æquum, contra officium est (Off. iii. 10).
c. A word or phrase inserted between the parts of compound tenses becomes emphatic: as,

$$
\text { ille reprehensus a multis est (N. D. ii. } 3^{88} \text { ). }
$$

d. A modifier of a noun and adjective or participle is often placed between them. So in the gerundive construction : as,
de communi hominum memoriâ (Tusc. i. 24).
de uno imperatore contra prædones constituendo (Manil. 17).
e. Sometimes a noun and its attribute are separated as far as possible, so as to include less important words : as,
objurgationes etiam nonnunquam incidunt necessariæ (Off. i. 38).
$f$. One pair of ideas is set off against another, either in the same order or in exactly the opposite order. The latter, which is very common, is called chiasmus from the Greek $X$ on account of the cross arrangement. Thus,

- rerum copia verborum copiam gignit (De Or. iii. 3, 3I).
pro vitâ hominis nisi hominis vita reddatur (B. G. vi. 16).
leges supplicio improbos afficiunt, defendunt ac tuentur bonos (Fin. iii. 3).
non igitur utilitatem amicitia, sed utilitas amicitiam consecuta est (Læl. 14). [Here the arrangement of cases only is chiastic, that of ideas is regular.]
g. Different forms of the same word are often placed together, also words from the same root.

7. A favorite order with the poets is the interlocked, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other. This is often joined with chiasmus : as,
et superjecto pavidæ natârunt æquore damæ (H. Od. i. 2, II). arma nondum expiatis uncta cruoribus (id. ii. I, 5).

## 3. Special Rules.

a. Prepositions regularly precede their nouns (except tenus and versus), but they are often placed between a noun and adjective : as,
quem ad modum; quam ob rem; magno cum metu; omnibus cum copiis; nullầ in re.
b. Itaque regularly comes first in its sentence, or clause; enim, autem, vero, quoque, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; quidem never first, but after the emphatic word: ne... quidem include the emphatic word or words.
c. Inquam, inquit, \&c., credo, opinor, quaeso, used parenthetically, always follow one or more words.
d. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word, it begins the sentence.
4. Structure. Latin expresses the relation of words to each other by inflection, rather than by position, like modern languages. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence as a whole, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word, which usually expresses the main action or motive.

An English sentence does not often admit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the early writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, in such a passage as the following:-

[^1]
## PART THIRD.

## RULES OF VERSE (PROSODY).

## 77. Rhythm.

1. The Poetry of the ancients was not composed, like modern poetry, according to accent and rhyme; but was measured, like music, by the length of the syllables, or vowel sounds. The measured flow of verse is called Rhythm.
2. Each syllable is considered as either long or short, in Quantity or length (not in Quality or sound, as we speak of the long or short vowel-sounds in English) ; a long syllable being reckoned in length equal to two short ones (see p. 3).

Remark. - The quantity of radical or stem-syllables - as of short a in păter or of long a in māter - can be learned only ly observation or practice, unless determined by the general rules of Quantity. Most of the rules of Prosody are only arbitrary rules for the purposes of memory; the syllables being long or short because the ancients pronounced them so. In those cases which cannot be conveniently grouped, the quantity is shown by the actual practice of the ancients, and is said to be determined by the authority of the Poets, - the principal means we have of learning it. In some inscriptions, however, the long vowels are distinguished in various ways by marks over the letters, or by doubling.

Owing to the practice of Roman poets of borrowing very argely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Gireek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordtnce with the Greek and not the Latin laws of quantity. Where hese vary in any important point, they will be noticed in the rules ;iven below.

## 78. Rules of Quantity.

## 1. General Rules.

a. A vowel before another vowel is short: as, vĭa, trăho.

Remark. - The aspirate $\mathbf{h}$, as in the example above, is not eckoned as a Consonant in the rules of prosody (See § 1, I, Note).

Exceptions. -1. In the genitive form ius (§ 16, $1, b$ ), $i$ is long. It is, however, sometimes made short in verse.
2. In the fifth declension (genitive and dative singular), e is long between two vowels: as, diēi ; but is short after a consonant, as in fidĕi.
3. In fio (§ 37, 4), $\mathbf{i}$ is long except when followed by er: as, fio, fiebam, fiam, fieri, fierem.
4. In the terminations āius and eiius, a and e are long: as in Cāius, Pompēius; also in the verb āio, and genitives in āi.
5. In many Greek proper names, the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and is consequently long: as, Tröĕs, Thălīa, hērōăs. But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect as Academīa, chorē̃a.
b. A Diphthong is long: as, foedus, c $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, caelum, dē̈nde.

Excertion. - The preposition prae in compounds is generally short be a vowel (as in præustis, An. vii. 524).
c. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as i in nil (for nŭlıŭ); currūs (genitive for currŭĭs). But not where the vowels are united by synceresis, as in pariĕtibus (par-yetibus).
d. A syllable in which a short vowel comes before two consonants or a double consonant - also before the letter $\mathbf{j}$ - is long: as, māgnus, rēx, pējor, ēt vēntis ocior, (but ădhuc). But if the two consonants are a mute followed by 1 or r , the syllable is common, - that is, it may be either long or short in verse: as, alăcris, pẵtribus, rē̃fluo.

Remark. - Sometimes the $\mathbf{y}$ or v resulting from synæresis has the effect of a consonant: as, flūviōrūm rēx (G. i. 482).
e. In early Latin s at the end of words was not sounded, and hence does not make position with another consonant. In many other cases in the comic poets two consonants do not make position, especially in pronouns and particles : as, ille, ĭste, nĕmpe.

Remark. - A short syllable, made long under this rule, is said to be long by Position : as, in docětne. In docēsne, the same syllable is long by the general rule ( $2, h$, below). The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels.

## 2. Final Syllables.

$\boldsymbol{a}$. Words of one syllable ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, $t \bar{u}, h \bar{i}, n \bar{e}$.

The attached particles -nĕ, -quĕ, -vĕ, -cě, ptĕ, and rě- (rěd-) are short; se- is long: as, sēcedit, exercitumquĕ rĕducit.
b. Nouns of one syllable are long: as, sōl, ōs (öris), bōs, vìs. Exceptions. - cǒr, fěl, měl, ơs (ossis), vĭr.
c. Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words it is long: as, eă stellă (nominative), cum eā stellā; frustrā, vocā (imperative), posteā, trigintā ; also, quā (plural).

Exceptions. - eiă, ită, quiă, pută (suppose); and, in late use, trigintă, \&c.
d. Final e is short, except (1) in nouns of the fifth declension; (2) in adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form; (3) in the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, nubĕ, ducitĕ, fidē, famē (§ 11, b, 3), quārē (quā rē), hð̌điē (hoc die), monē, monētě, saepĕ, saepissimē.

Exceptions.-beně, malĕ ; ferē, fermē ; also (rarely), cavĕ, habĕ, tacĕ, valĕ, viđĕ; infernĕ, supernĕ.
e. Final $\mathbf{i}$ is long: as in turrī, filī, audi. But it is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisǐ, quasĭ, cŭĭ (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as Alexi.
$f$. Final o is common; but long in datives and ablatives; also, usually, in verbs.

Exceptions. - citð̌, modǒ, ilicð̌, profectǒ, dummodǒ, immŏ, egð, duǒ, octŏ.
g. Final $\mathbf{u}$ is long; final $\mathbf{y}$ is short.
h. Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys are short: as, nefās, rupēs, servōs, honớs; hostĭs, amicŭs, Tethy̆s.

Exceptions. - as is short in Greek plural accusatives, as lampadăs; and in anăs.
es is short in nours of the third declension (lingual) increasing short: as milĕs (ĭtis), obsĕs (ĭdis), - except abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, pēs ; in the present of esse (ĕs, adĕs); in the preposition penĕs; and in the plural of Greek nouns.
os is short in compos, impos; in some Greek endings, as barbitŏs; also o for later $\mathbf{u}$ in the second declension, as servŏs (nominative).
is in plural cases is long, as in bonis, omnis (accusative plural) ; in sīs, vis, velīs, malīs, nolīs; in gratīs, forīs (properly plurals) ; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as audis (where it is the stem-vowel); and sometimes in the forms in eeris (perfect subjunctive), where it was originally long.
us is long in the genitive singular and nominative and accusative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ long in the stem: as virtūs (ūtis), incūs (ūdis).
i. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except c, are short: as, ăd, āc, istūc, amăt, amatŭr.

Exceptions. - doněc, făc, něc, sometimes hĭc; ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn; crās, plūs; cūr, pār.

## 3. Penultimate Syllables.

a. Increment. A Noun is said to increase, when in any case it has more syllables than in the nominative singular.

Thus stella is said to increase long in stellārum; and corpus to increase short in corporis.

Note. - The rules of increment are purely arbitrary, as the syllables are long or short according to the proper quantity of the stem or the formative terminations. The quantity of noun stems appears in the schedule of the third declension (§ 11, iv. 3), and that of terminations, under the various inflections where it is better to learn them.

A Verb is said to increase, when in any part it has more syllables than in the stem (inclusive of the final vowel).

Thus amo is said to increase long in amātis; and rego to increase short in regitis.

The final syllable of an inflected word is called the termination ; that immediately preceding is called the increment.

Thus, in the examples given above, the penultimate syllable is called the increment. In itĭněrĭbus, amāvĕrĭtis, the syllables marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.
b. Nouns. In the increment of Nouns and Adjectives, a and $\mathbf{o}$ are generally long; $\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}$, generally short (see list, pp. 25-27) : as, aetātis, honōris, servōrum ; opěris, carmĭnis, murmŭris, pecŭdis, chlamy̆dis. Exceptions are:-
ă:- baccar (ăris), hepar (ătis), jubar (ăris), lar (lăris), mas (măris), nectar (ăris), par (păris), sal (sălis), vas (vădis), daps (dăpis), fax, anthrax (ăcis).

ठ: - neuters of third declension (except ōs, ōris) ; arbor (ŏris), scrobs (scrŏbis), ops (ŏpis).
$\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ :- increments of fifth declension; heres (ēdis), lex (lēgis), locuples (ētis), merces (ēdis), plebs (plēbis), quies (ētis), rex (rēgis), ver (vēris).
$\mathbf{i}:-$ most nouns and adjectives in ix: as, felīcis, radīcis (except filix, nix, strix); dis (dítis), glis (glīris), lis (lītis), vis (vīres), Quirītes, Samnītes.
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ :-forms from nouns in ūs: as, palūdis, tellūris, virtūtis; also lux (lūcis), frux (frūgis).
c. Verbs. In the increment of Verbs (see Tables of Inflection, pp. 66-74), the characteristic vowels are as follows:-

Of the first conjugation $\overline{\mathrm{a}}:$ as, amāre, amātur.
Of the second conjugation $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ : as, monēre, monētur.
Of the third conjugation ě, $\mathfrak{I}:$ as, regĕre, regǐtur.
Of the fourth conjugation $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ : as, audire, auditur.
Exc. - do and its compounds havẹ ă: as, dăre, circumdăbat. In other increments -
$\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ is always long: as, moneāris, regāmus.
$\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ is long in tense-endings: as, regēbam, audiēbar. But it is short before ram, rim, ro; in the future personal endings -bĕris, bĕre; and sometimes in the perfect -ěrunt (as stětēruntque comae, An. ii. 774).
$\overline{\mathbf{i}}$ is long in forms after the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, petivi, lacessitus (in others short: as, monirtus); also in the subjunetive present of esse and velle, and (rarely) in the endings -rimus, -ritis ; but short in the future forms amabirtis, \&c.
$\overline{\bar{o}}$ is found only in imperatives, and is always long.
ŭ is short in sŭmus, volŭmus, quaesŭmus; in the supine and its derivatives it is long: as, solūtūrus.
d. Perfects and supines of two syllables lengthen the stemsyllable: as, jŭvo, jūvi, jūtum; vǐdeo, vīdi, vīsum; fŭgio, fügi.

Exceptions. - bĭbi, dĕdi (do), fĭdi (findo), scǐdi (scindo), stěti (sto), stĭti (sisto), tŭli (fero); - cĭtum (cieo), dătum (do), ĭtum (eo), lǐtum (lino), quĭtum (queo), rătum (reor), rŭtum (ruo), sătum (sero), sĭtum (sino), stătum (sto or sisto). In some compounds of sto, stātum is found long, as prostātum.
e. Reduplicated perfects shorten both syllables: as, cĕcĭdi (cădo), dĭđĭci (disco), cĕcĭni (căno); but cĕcīdi from caedo, pepēdi from pēdo.
$f$. Forms from the same Stem retain the original quantity : as, ămo, ămavisti, gĕnus, gĕneris.

Exceptions. - 1. bōs, lār, mās, pār, pēs, sāl, vās - also arbōs (not arbor) - have a long vowel in the nominative from short stems.
2. Nouns in or, genitive ōris, have the vowel shortened before the final r : as, honorr. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in Plautus and some inscriptions these nominatives are often found long.)
3. Many verb-forms with original long vowel shorten it before final $t$ : as, amět, dicerĕt (compare amēmus), audĭt, firt. (The final syllable in $t$ of the perfect seems to have been originally long, but to have been shortened under this rule.)
g. Forms from the same Root often vary in quantity from vowel-increase (see §§ 1, 3, $a ; 5,2 ; 44, \mathrm{I}, a$ ) ; as, dico (cf. maledĭcus), dūco (dŭcis), fīdo (perfidus); vōcis (vŏco), lēgio (lĕgo).
7. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, occĭdo (căjo), occīdo (caedo), inīquus (aequus). Greek words compounded with $\pi \rho o$ have o short, as prơphēta, prŏlŏgus. Some Latin compounds of pro have o short, as proficiscor, proffiteor. Compounds with ne vary: as, něfas, nĕgo, nĕqueo, nēquis, nēquam. So dejĕro and pejĕro from jūro.
[For the quantity of Penultimate Syllables in regular Derivatives, see § 44, pages $97-99$.]

## 79. Feet.

1. The most natural division of musical time is into intervals, consisting of either two or three equal parts, making what is called double or triple time; but the ancients also distinguished five equal parts. These intervals are in music called Measures; in prosody, they are called Feet.
2. The feet most frequently employed in Latin verse consist either of two or three syllables; and may be represented by musical notation, as follows:-
a. Of Two Syllables.
3. $\frac{2}{8}|\hat{?}|$ Pyrrhic ( ${ }^{\sim}$ ): as, bŏnŭs.
4. $\left.\frac{3}{8} \right\rvert\, \rho$ ค Trochee or Choree $\left(^{-\smile}\right)$ : as, cārŭs.
5. $\frac{3}{8}|i \rho|$ Iambus ( $\left(^{-}\right.$) : as, bǒnōs.
6. $\frac{2}{4}|i p|$ Spondee $\left(^{--}\right)$: as, cārōs.

## b. Of Three Syllables.

1. $\frac{2}{4}|\hat{Q} \cdot| \operatorname{Dactyl}\left(^{-\sim)}\right.$ ): as, dētŭlĭt.
2. $\frac{2}{4}|\hat{V}|$ Anapcest $\left(\sim^{--}\right)$: as, dơmĭnōs.
3. $\frac{2}{4}|\cup \bullet \cup|$ Amphibrach $\left(\sim^{-}\right)$: as, ămīcŭs.
4. $\left.\frac{3}{8} \right\rvert\, \hat{V}$

Tribrach (~~〕) : as, hơmĭnĭs.
5. $\frac{3}{4}|\rho \rho \rho|$
Of three sylla
6. $|\cap \vee \rho|$

Molossus $\left(^{-{ }^{-}}\right.$) : as, fūgērūnt (rare).
7. |Qค户|Bacchius $\left(\sim^{--}\right)$: as, rĕgēbānt.

## c. Of Four Syllables.

1. Choriambus (trochee, iambus) : as, dētŭlĕrānt.
2. Greater Ionic (spondee, pyrrhic) : as, dējēcĕrăt.
3. Lesser Ionic (pyrrhic, spondee) : as, rětŭlīssēnt.
4. The first, second, third, or fourth Epitritus has a short syllable in the first, second, third, or fourth place with three long syllables.
5. The first, second, third, or fourth Paoon has a long syllable in the first, second, third, or fourth place with three short syllables.
6. The Proceleusmatic consists of four short syllables, as ŏpĕrǏbŭs.

Note. - Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or chant; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or music, often to be accompanied by measured movements or dance. But in reading, it is not usual, though it is better, to keep the strict measure of time; and often accent is substituted for rhythm, as anglish poetry.
d. In general, feet of the same time can be substituted for each other, and two short syllables may stand for a long one. In the latter case, the long syllable is said to be resolved.

Thus the Spondee may take the place of the dactyl or anapæst, the Tribrach of the trochee or iambus; the Proceleusmatic, or a Dactyl standing for an anapæst, is the resolution of a spondee.

When a long syllable having the ictus is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the short syllables; but the accent to indicate it is placed on the first: as,

Núnc experiar | sítrée aceto | tíbi cor acre in | péctore.
Bacce. 405.
3. Arsis and Thesis. The accented syllable of each foot is called the Arsis; and the unaccented part the Thesis.

Note. - The name Arsis meant originally the raising of the foot in beating time ("upward beat"), and Thesis the putting down ("downward beat") ; but these terms came, in later use, to signify respectively the raising and depression of the voice. (See Mar. Vict. Chap. ix.)
4. Ictus. Accent, in prosody, is called Ictus, - that is, the beat of the foot, as in a dance or march.
5. Cassura. The end of a word interrupting a foot is called Cæsura; and when this coincides with a rhetorical break in the sense, it is called the Cæsura of the verse.

Note. - The position of the principal Cæsura is important, as affecting the melody or rhythm. See description of verses below.

## 80. Scanning.

1. Verse. A single line in poetry, or a series of feet set in metrical order, is called a Verse (i.e. a turning back).

To divide the verse, in reading, into its appropriate feet, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called Scanning or Scansion (i.e. climbing, or advance by steps).

A verse lacking a syllable at the beginning is called Acephalous (headless) ; lacking a syllable at the end, it is called Catalectic (stopped) ; complete, Acatalectic. Sometimes a verse appears to have a superfluous syllable, and is then called Hypercatalectic.

The word Verse (versus, a turning) is opposed to Prose (prorsus or pro-vextus, straight ahead).
2. Elision. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) - sometimes even at the end of a verse - is dropped, when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called Synalœpha (smearing), or Elision (bruising); or, at the end of a verse, Synapheia (binding).

A final $m$, with the preceding vowel, is dropped in like manner : this is called Ecthlipsis. (Hence a final syllable in $m$ is said to have no quantity of its own; its vowel, in any case, being either elided, or else made long by position.) Thus in the verse:-
Monstrum horrendum informe ingens cui lumen ademptum.
Enn. iii. 658.
Note. - The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets: as,

T' inveigle and invite th' unwary sense. - Comus, 538.
In early Latin poetry, a syllable ending in s was often elided, even before a consonant: as,

Senio confectu' quiescit. - Ennius (quoted in Cat. M. 5).
3. Hiatus. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This is called Hiatus (gaping). Sel met. 6
4. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause: it is then said to be long by Cosura. (This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears being caused by the retention of an original long quantity.) Nostrorum obruimūr, oriturque miserrima cædes. - Ein. ii. 4II.
5. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (except in some forms of Anapæstic and Ionic verse).

## 81. Metre.

1. Metre is the regular combination of feet in verse, and is named from its most frequent and ruling foot: as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic, Choriambic.

Note. - The ruling foot, so called, always consists of a combination of long and short syllables, and is therefore never a pyrrhic or spondee.

The shorter feet (Iambus, Trochee) are counted not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodies), so that six Iambi make a trimeter, \&c.
2. A Verse consists of a given number of feet arranged metrically. It is named from the number of feet (or pairs) it contains, as Hexameter, Trimeter.
3. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order. It is often called from the name of some poet, as Sapphic, Alcaic, Horatian.

## 82. Forms of Verse.

1. Dactylic. The most common forms of dactylic verse are the Hexameter and Pentameter.
a. Hexameter. The Hexameter, called also Heroic verse, is used in narrative and pastoral poetry. It consists of six feet, of which the last is always incomplete (a trochee or spondee), the fifth generally a dactyle, and the rest indifferently dactyles or spondees. The fifth foot is rarely a spondee, in which case the verse is called spondaic. The principal Cæsura falls after the arsis (sometimes in the thesis) of the third foot or after the arsis of the fourth. In the last case there should be another in the third.

The introductory verses of the Fneid, divided according to the foregoing rules, will be as follows, the principal Cæsura in each verse being marked by double lines: -
ārmă vî|rūmqué că|nō || Trō|jæ quī | prīmŭs ăb | ōrīs
Itālịlām fā|tō prŏfũ|gựs || Lā|vīniăquĕ | vēṇ̂t
lītơră, | mūlte ille | ēt tēr|rīs || jăc|tātŭs ět | āltō
vī sŭpĕ|rūm sæ|væ || měmŏ|rēm Jū|nōnǐs ŏb | īram ;
mūltă quŏ|que ēt bēl|lō pās|sūs \|| dūm | cōndĕrět | ūrbem,
īnfēr|rētquě dĕ|ōs Lătî $\mid$, $\|$ gěnŭs | ūndĕ Lă|tīnum,
Albā|nīquě pă|trēs, || āt|que āltæ | mœnı̆ă| Rōmæ.

Another form of cæsura is seen in the following: -
Hōc făcĭ|ēns vī|vām mělĭ|ūs || sīc | dūlcǐs ă|micis.
Hor. Sat. I. 4, 135.

The Hexameter verse has been illustrated in English thus:-
"Strongly it | bears us a |long, || in | swelling and | limitless | billows, Nothing be |fore and | nothing be |hind, || but the | sky and the | ocean."
b. Pentameter. The Pentameter consists of five feet, and is used alternately with the hexameter to form the Elegiac stanza. It must be scanned as two half-verses, of which the latter always has two dactyls, and each ends in a long syllable or half-foot. There is no cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word: as,
cūm sǔbřt | inlī]̄̄s trīs|tīssĭmă | nōctis ǐ|māgo
quā mǐhǐ | sūprē|mūm || tēmpŭs in | ūrbě fư|ĭt,
cūm rěpě|tō nōc|tēm quā | tōt mǐhǐ | cāră rĕ|líquī,
lābĭtŭr | ēx ŏcŭ|lis || nūnc quŏquě | guttă mĕ|īs.
jām prŏpě | lūx ădĕ|rāt, quā | mē dīs|cēděrě | Cæsăr
fīnǐbŭs | ēxtrē|mæ || jūssěrăt | Ausŏň̌|æ.
Ov. Trist. I. El. 3, 1-6.

The Elegiac Stanza has been illustrated thus:-
"In the hex |ameter | rises the | fountain's | silvery | column, In the pent|ameter | still || falling in | melody | back."
c. Rarely, other dactylic verses, or half-verses, combined with trochees or iambs, are used by the lyric poets: viz., -
Dactylic pentameter:
ārbŏrī|būsquě cŏ|mæ. - Hor. Od. IV. 7.
Dactylic tetrameter:
crās īn|gēns Y̌tě|rābřmŭs | æquorr. -Od. I. 7.
Archilochian heptameter:
solvitur | acris hi|ēmps, grā|tā vǐcě | vērı̆s | ēt Fă|vōni. Od. I. 4.
2. Iambic. The most common forms of Iambic verse are the Trimeter (Senarius), and Tetrameter (Septenarius or Octonarius).
a. Trimeter. The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. . It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus. In the first half-measure (odd places), the Spondee or its equivalents (anapæst or dactyl) may be regularly
substituted. In the comic poets, these substitutions may be made in any foot except the last: as,

O lūcǐs āl|mě rēctǒr || ēt | cāelī děcŭs !
qui āltērnă cūr|rū spăťă || flām|mĭfěro āmbiens, îllūstrě lāē|tīs || ēxsĕrı̌s | tērrīs cẳpŭt.

Herc. Fur. 592-94.
hǒmō sum: hūmā|nī \|| nihīl ā me ălı̣|ēnūm pŭtō. vēl mē mŏnē|re hōc $\|$ vēl pērcōn|tārī pŭtā.

Heaut. 77, 78.
Remark. - The choliambic (lame Iambic) substitutes a trochee for the last Iambus: as,
sēd nōn vǐdē|mūs māntǐcæ | quŏd in tērgo ēst.
Catull. XXII. 21.
b. Tetrameter. The Iambic Tetrameter catalectic (Septenarius) consists of seven iambic feet, with the same substitutions as the above. It is used in more lively dialogue: as, nam īdcīrco ārcēs|sōr, nūptīās | quōd mi ādpărā|rī sēnsǐt. quǐbŭs quĭdĕm quām făcĭ|lĕ pǒtǔĕrāt \| quǐēscī si hīc | qư̌ēsset! Andria, 690-91.
The iambic tetrameter acatalectic (Octonarius) consists of eight full iambic feet with the same substitutions. It is also used in lively dialogue: as, hŏcǐnēsthūmā|nŭm fāctu aūt| īn'cēpt $u$ ? hǒcǐnēst ōf|f̌̌cřūm pătř̌s? quĭd ưllŭd ēst? prō | děūm fīdēm, | quĭd ěst, si hōc nōn cōn|tŭmēlīāst?

Andria, 236-7.
c. Dimeter. The Iambic Dimeter consists of either four (acatalectic) or three and a half (catalectic) iambic feet. The former is used in combination with a longer verse, and the latter only in choruses : as,
běātŭs illlě quī prǒcūl | něgōťīs, ŭt prīscă gēns | mōrtālīūm, pătērnă rū|ră būbŭs ēx|ērcēt sǔīs, sǒlūtŭs ōm|nī fēnǒrě ;
něque ēxcǐtā|tūr clāssǐcō | mīlēs trŭcī, něque hōrrĕt ī|rātūm mărě ;
fơrūmquĕ vī|tăt, ēt sŭpēr bă cīv̌̌ūm pǒtēnť̄ō|rūm līmĭnă.
> quōnām crǔēn|tă Mænās, præcēps ămō|rě sævō, răpǐtūr quŏd īm|pŏtēntī făč̌nūs părāt | fưrōrě ?
Medea, 850-53.
3. Trochaic. The most common form of Trochaic verse is the Tetrameter catalectic (Septenarius), consisting of seven complete feet with an additional syllable. `Strictly, the spondee and its resolutions can be substituted only in the even places; but the comic poets allow the substitution in every foot but the last : as,
ǐti̛dem hăbēt pětă|sum āc vēstītūm: | tām cōnsǐmîlist | ātque ěgŏ. sūră, pēs, stă'tūră, tōnsŭs, | ŏcŭlī, nāsūm, | vēl lăbră, mālæ, mēntūm, |. bārbă, cōllŭs : | tōtŭs ! quīd vēr|bīs ǒpūst? sī tērgūm cǐ|cātrīcōsūm, | nihīl hōc sǐmǐlist | sǐmillŭs.

Amphitr. 443-46.
4. Anapastic. Anapæstic verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry. The spondee, dactyl, or proceleusmatic may be substituted for the anapæst: as,
> hǐc hŏmōst | ǒmň̌um hǒmǐ|nūm præ|č̌pŭŏs vŏlŭptā|tǐbŭs gaū|dīisque ān|těpǒtēns. Ytă cōm|mŏdă quæ | cŭpı̌o ē|věň̄ūnt, quŏd ăgō \| sǔbǐt, ād sěcǔē \| sěquǐtŭr : ǐtă gaū|dīis gaū|dǐŭm sūp|pědǐtāt.

Trin. 1115-19.
Some other forms of trochaic verse are found in the lyric poets, in combination with other feet, either as whole lines or parts of lines : as,
nōn ěbūr ně|que aūrěūm [dimeter] měā rĕnī|dĕt īn dǒmō | lăcūnăr. Hor. Od. II. 18.
5. Bacchic. The Bacchius occurs in dramatic poets either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). The long syllables may be resolved into short ones, and the molossus substituted: as,
mūltās rēs | sǐmītu in | měō cōr dě vōrsō, mūltum īn cō|gǐtāndō | dŏlōrem inn|dY̌pīscor,

# ěgŏmēt mē | cǒquo ēt mā|cěro ēt dē|fẽtīgō : măgīstēr | mǐhi ēxēr|cǐtōr ănĭ|mǔs nūnc ēst. 

 Trin. 223-26.6. Cretic. Cretic feet (Amphimacer) occur in the same manner as the Bacchius, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete: as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ămŏr ămī|cūs mı̌hī | nē fūās | ūnquām. } \\
& \text { hīs ěgō | de ārtǐbūs | grātīām | făcīo. } \\
& \text { nīl ěgo īs } \mid \text { tōs mǒrōr | fæcěōs | mōrēs. } \\
& \text { Triv. 267, 293, } 297 .
\end{aligned}
$$

7. Choriambic. Choriambic feet are regularly preceded by a spondee or trochee, called a basis, and are followed by a close, consisting of one or more syllables (see below).
a. The First or Lesser Asclepiadic verse consists of two choriambs preceded by a trochee (in Horace a spondee), and followed by an iambus $(8, d)$.
b. The Second or Greater Asclepiadic has three choriambs with the same basis and close $(8, h)$ : as,
nēc fāc|ta īmpĭă fāl|lācum hŏmĭnūm | cāēlǐcŏlīs | plăcēnt. Catull. XXX. 4.
c. The Glyconic consists of one choriambus, with the same basis and close $(8, e)$.
d. The Pherecratic consists of one choriambus, with the same basis, and one long syllable for close $(8, g)$.
e. The Greater Sapphic consists of two choriambs, preceded by a trochaic dipody (epitritus secundus), and followed by a bacchius $(8, c)$ : as,

> Sæpě trāns fī|nēm jăcǔlō | nōbīlĭs ēx pědītō.
> Hor. Od. I. 8.
f. The Lesser Sapphic consists of one choriambus, with the same basis and close $(8, b)$ : as,
interr audā|cēs lŭpŭs ēr|răt āgnōs.

$$
\text { Hor. Od. III. 18, } 13 .
$$

$\boldsymbol{g}$. The Adonic consists of one choriambus, followed by a long syllable $(8, b)$.
h. The Phalæcian consists of a basis, a choriambus, an iambus, and bacchius: as,
dīsēr|tīssǐmẹ̆ Rō|mŭlī | něpōtum quōt sūnt | quōtquĕ fuē|rě̌ Mār|cě Tulli. Catul. XLIX. 1, 2.
$\boldsymbol{i}$. The lesser Ionic verse consists of pairs of the foot of the same name.
7. Rarely other forms of choriambic verse occur: as, for example -
Aristophanic:
tēmpěrăt ō|ră frēnīs.
Hor. Od. I. 8, 7.
Tetrameter:
ōbstǐpuīt; | pēctŏrĕ nīl | sisstěrĕ cōn|š̌lī quīt.
Adelphi, 613.
8. Stanzas. The principal forms of lyric stanza, or strophe, are the following:-
a. Alcaic Strophe, consisting of four verses : the first two (greater Alcaic) having each a spondee (or trochee), bacchius and two dactyls ; the third a spondee, bacchius, and two trochees, and the fourth into two dactyls and two trochees: as, jūstum āc | těnācēm | prōpŏsǐ|tī v vrŭm nōn cī|lv̌um ārdōr | prāvă jŭ|bēntiŭm, nōn vūl|tŭs īnstān|tīs ty|rānnī, mēntě quă|tīt sǒlil||dā ně|que aūstēr.

Hor. Od. III. 3.
b. Lesser Sapphic, consisting of three Lesser Sapphic verses, and one Adonic (see above, $7, f, g$ ) : as,
jām sătīs tēr|rīs nǐv̌̌s āt|quĕ dīræ
grāndǐnīs mī|sīt pătěr ēt | rŭbēntě
dēxtěrā sā|crās jăcŭlä|tǔs ārcēs
tērrŭt ūr|bem.
Id. Od. I. 2, 1-4.
c. Greater Sapphic, consisting of a choriambic dimeter ( $7, h$ ), and a greater Sapphic ( $7, e$ ) : as,

Lyď̌̆ dīc | pěr ōmnēs
tē děōs ō|rō Sybărīn | cūr prŏperrās | ămāndō.
Hor. Od. I. 8.
d. Lesser Asclepladean, consisting of single lines (monostrophon), of lesser asclepiadics $(7, a)$ : as,

Mæcē|nās ătăvīs | ēdǐtĕ rē|gǐbŭs
O ēt \| præsĭdǐum ēt \| dūlcě dĕ́cūs \| měŭm.
Id. I. 1.
e. Second Asclepiadean, consisting of one Glyconic (7,e), and one lesser Asclepiadic : as,

Rōmæ | prīncǐpǐs ūr|bĭŭm dīgnā|tūr sŭbŏlēs | īntěr ămā|bǐlēs
vātūm | pōněrě mē | chŏrōs; ēt jām | dēntě mĭnūs | mōrděŏr īn|vǐdō.

> Id. Od. IV. 3, 13-16.
f. Third Asclepiadean, consisting of three lesser Asclepiadics and one Glyconic : as,
audīs | quō strěpřtū | jānŭă quō | nĕmŭs īntēr | pūlchră sătūm | tēctă rěmū|ǧăt vēntīs | ēt pŏsǐtās | ūt glăčēt | nǐvēs pūrō | nūmĭně Jū|pǐtěr.

> Id. Od. III. 10, 5-8.
g. Fourth Asclepiadean, consisting of two lesser Asclepiadics, one Pherecratic ( $7, d$ ), and one Glyconic: as,

> hīc bēl|lūm lăcrĭmō|sum hīc mǐsĕrām | ămĕm pēstēm|que ā pǒpǔlo ēt | prīncǐpě Cæ|săre în Pērsās | ātquě Brǐtān|nōs vēstrā | mōtŭs ăgēt | prĕcě.

> Id. Od. III. 21, 13-16.
h. Greater Asclepiadean, consisting of single lines of greater asclepiadics: as,
tū nē | quæsǐěrīs | scīrě něfās | quēm mǐhř quēm | ť̌bǐ. Od. I. 11, 18; IV. 10.
$\boldsymbol{i}$. The above forms include upwards of a hundred of the Odes of Horace. In the eighteen not included, he employs twelve different kinds of stanzas, most of which are combinations of the verses already given. They may be briefly indicated as fol-lows:-

1. Hexameter, followed by the last four feet of an hexameter. - Od. I. 7, 28; Epod. 12.
2. Hexameter, followed by Iambic Dimeter. - Epod. 14, 15.
3. Iambic Trimeter alone. - Erod. 17.
4. Hexameter, followed by Iambic Trimeter. - Epod. 16.
5. Verse of four Lesser Ionics. - Od. III. 12.
6. Hexameter with Dactylic Penthemim (five half-feet) :
dīffū|gērě ň̌|vēs rědĕ | ūnt jām | grāmĭnă | cāmpīs ārbŏrī|būsquě cŏ|mæ. - Od. IV. 7.
7. Iambic Trimeter; Dactylic Penthemim ; Iambic Dimeter. Epod. 11.
8. Hexameter ; Iambic Dimeter ; Dactylic Penthemim. -Ed. 13.
9. Archilochian Heptameter; Iambic Trimeter catalectic: as, sōlvǐtŭr | ācrǐs hǐ|ēms grā|tā vǐcĕ \| vērǐs | ēt Fă|vōni trăhūnt|quĕ sīc|cās mā chǐnæ | cărī|nas. - Od. I. 4.
10. Trochaic Dimeter and Iambic Trimeter, each imperfect: as, nōn | ěbūr | něque au|rěum měā | rěnī|dĕt in | dǒmō | lăcū|nar. - Od. II. 18.
$\boldsymbol{k}$. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the abovementioned verses.
11. Four Glyconics with one Pherecratic: as,

Dǐā|næ sŭmŭs īn | fưdě puel $\| \neq e$ ēt pŭĕr $i$ īn|těgrī : Dīāinām, pǔĕri īn|těgrī pŭēl|læquĕ cănā|mus. --CAtull. 34.
2. Sapphics, in series of single lines, closing with an Adonic : as,

An magis diri tremuēre Manes
Herculem? et visum canis inferorum fugit abruptis trepidus catenis? fallimur: læte venit, ecce, vultu, quem tulit Pœas ; humerisque tela gestat, et notas populis pharetras

Herculis heres.
Herc. (Et. 1600-6.
3. Sapphics followed by Glyconics, of indefinite number (Herc. Fur. 830-874, 875-894).

## 83. Early Prosody.

The prosody of the earlier Latin poets differs in several respects from that of the later.

Note. - Before the language was used in literature, it had become very much changed by the loss of final consonants and shortening of final syllables under the influence of accent, which was originally free in its position, but in Latin became limited to the penult and ante-penult. This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but shows itself again in the Romance languages. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early poets. .
a. At the end of words s was only feebly sounded, so that it does not make position with a following consonant, and is sometimes cut off before a vowel. (This usage continues in all poets till Cicero's time : see $\S \S 1,2,6 ; 80,2$, note.
b. The last syllable of any word of two syllables may be made short if the first is short. (This effect remained in a few words like pută, cavĕ, valĕ, vidĕ.) Thus:-
ăbĕst (Cist. ii. I, 12) ; ăpŭd tēst (Trin. 196); sǒrŏr dīctāst (Enn. 157) ; bŏnăs (Stich. 99) ; dŏmī děæque (Pseud. 37) ; dǒmĭ (Mil. 194).
c. The same effect is produced when a short monosyllable precedes a long syllable: as,
ǐd ĕst profecto (Merc. 372), ěř̌t et třbi ěxoptatum (Mil. IOII), sī quǐdem hĕrcle (Asin. 414), quĭd ĕst si hōc (Andria, 237).
d. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded. Such are, ille, ĭste, inde, ŭnde, němpe, ĕsse (?). (Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle in this irregularity, or its extent.) Thus:-

> ĕcquǐs his in ædibust (Bacch. 581).
$\boldsymbol{e}$. In some cases the accent seems to shorten a syllable preceding it in a word of more than three syllables: as in senĕctūti, Syrăcusae.
f. At the beginning of a verse, many syllables long by position stand for short ones: as,

Ydně tu (Pseud. 442) ; ĕstne consimilis (Epid. v. I. 18).
$\boldsymbol{g}$. The original long quantity of many final syllables is retained. Thus:-

1. Final a of the first declension is often long: as, ne epístulā quidem úlla sit in aédibus (Asin. 762). Pol hódie alterá jam bis detónsa certost.
2. Final a of the neuter plural is sometimes long (though there seems no etymological reason for it): as,

Núnc et amico prósperabo et géniō meŏ multā bona faciam (Pers. 263).
3. So also nouns in -or with long stem, either with original $\mathbf{r}$ or original s: as,
módo quom dicta in me íngerebas odium non uxōr eram (Asin. 927).
íta mi in pectore átque corde fácit amōr incéndium (Merc. 590). atque quanto nóx fuisti lóngiōr hoc próxuma (Amph. 548).
4. So in nouns with vowel lengthened originally by loss of a consonant: as, milēs, superstitēs.
5. 'So all verb-endings in $\mathbf{r}$ and t , where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection: as,
régrediōr audísse mē (Capt. 1023) ; átque ut qui fuerīs et qui nunc (Capt. 248) ; me nómināt hæc (Epid. iv. I, 8); faciāt ut semper (Pœn. ii. 42) ; ínfuscabát, amabo (Cretics, Cist. i. 1, 21) ; quí amēt (Merc. 1021) ; ut fīt in bello capitur alter filius (Capt. 25) ; tibi sīt ad me revísas (Truc. ii. 4, 79).
7. The hiatus is allowed very freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of the speaker. (The extent of this license is still a question among scholars, but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.)

## 84. Reckoning of Time.

1. Date of Year. . The year was dated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City ( $a b$ urbe condit $\hat{a}$, or anno urbis condita), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.c. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754: e.g. A.U.C. 691 (the year of Cicero's consulship) = в.c. 63.
2. The Roman Year. Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (b.c. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days, February having 28, and each of the remainder 29; with an Intercalary month, on alternate years, inserted after February 23, at the discretion of the Pontifices. The'"Julian year," by the reformed calendar, had 365 days, divided as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vi. kal. Mart.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month : hence the year was called Bissextilis. The month Quintilis received the name Julius (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar ; and Sextilis of Augustus (August), in honor of his successor.

The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year once in every century.
3. The Month. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows :-
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends), from calare, to call, -that being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the Comitia Calata, which they did, originally, from actual observation.
b. Sixteen days before the Calends, - that is, on the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the other months, - were the Idus (Ides), the day of Full Moon.
c. Eight days (the ninth by the Roman reckoning) before the Ides, - that is, on the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, - were the Nonae (Nones, or ninths).
d. From the three points thus determined the days of the month were reckoned backwards (the point of departure being, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning), giving the following rule for determining the date: -

If the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding, - if Nones or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall, - and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date $:-$ thus, viii. Kal. Feb. $(33-8)=$ Jan. $25 ;-$ iv. Non. Mar. $(8-4)=$ Mar. $4 ;-$ iv. Id. Sept. $(14-4)=$ Sept. 10 .
e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table:-

| Fanuary. | February. | March. | April. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Kal. Jan. | Kal. Feb. | Kal. Martie | Kal. Apriles |
| 2. Iv, Non. Jan. | iv. Non. Feb. | vi. Non. Mart. | iv. Non. Apr. |
| 3. MII. " " | inl. " | v. " | mil. " " |
|  | prid. "Fer." | IV. " | prid $\mathrm{NoN}$. "Apriles. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 5. NON. JAN. } \\ & \text { 6. viII. Id. Jan. } \end{aligned}$ | viII. Id. Feb. | prid. " ", | viil. Id. Apr. |
| 7. vir. " | viI. | Non. Martie | vir. " " |
| 8. vi. | vi. | vili. Id. Mart. | vi. " |
| 9. v. $\quad$ " | v. | vir. | v. " " |
| rv. | Iv. | vi. | Iv. " " |
| 11. H11. " | III. " " | v. $\quad$, | prid " " |
| 12. prid. " $"$ | prid. "Feb." | Iv. " | prid. ${ }_{\text {Idus }}{ }^{\text {Aprilem }}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 13. IdUS JAN. } \\ & \text { 14. xix. Kal. Feb. } \end{aligned}$ | xvr. Kal. Martias | prid. " | xvirr. Kal. Maias |
| 15. xvili., | xv. " | Idvi Martie. | xvir. |
| 16. xVII. " | xiv. " | xvir. Kal. Aprilis | $\mathrm{xvi}^{\mathrm{xy}}$. |
| 17. XV. | ${ }_{\text {xili. }}$ | xvi. | ${ }_{\text {xve }} \mathrm{x}$. |
| 18. xv. | XII. " | xv. | xrv. |
| 19. xiv. " | ${ }^{\text {xi. }}$ " | xiv. | XIII. " " |
| 20. XIII. | ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$. | XIII. | ${ }_{\text {XII }}$ |
| 21. XII. | ${ }^{1 \times}$ | xII. | ${ }^{\text {xI }}$. |
| ${ }^{22} .81$. | viII. | ${ }^{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{x}$. | x. |
| 23. x . $\quad$ | vir. | x . | ${ }^{1 \times 1}$ x. |
| 24.1 r. | vi. | ${ }^{1 \times}$ | viri. " |
| 25. vili. | v . | viri. | viI. " |
| ${ }^{26 .}$ viI. | Iv. | viI. | vi. |
| 27. vi. 28. v. | ${ }_{\text {prem }}^{\text {prid. }}$ | vi. | v. $\quad$ rv. $\quad$, |
| 29. vv. ${ }_{\text {28. }}$ | (prid. M̈al. Mart. | Iv. | III. " ", |
|  | in leap-year, the | Hir. |  |
| 31. prid. ${ }^{3}$ So Aug. Dec | vi. Kal. (24th) being |  | So June, Sept., Nov. |

Note. - Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (b.c. 46) is to be found not by the above, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

## 85. Measures of Value.

1. The Money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper, the unit being the As. This was nominally a pound, but actually somewhat less, in weight, and was divided into twelve unciae. In the third century b.c. the $A s$ was reduced by degrees to one-twelfth of its original value. At the same time silver coins were introduced ; the Denarius $=10$ Asses, and the Sestertius or sesterce (semis-tertius, or half-third, represented by IIS or HS $=$ duo et semis) $=2 \frac{1}{2}$ Asses.
2. The Sestertius, being probably introduced at a time when it was equal in value to the original as, came to be used as the unit of value: hence nummus, coin, was used as equivalent to Sestertius. Afterwards, by the reductions in the standard, four asses became equal to a sesterce. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces.

The value of these coins is seen in the following Table :$2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses $=1$ sestertius or nummus (Hs), value about 4 cents.
1o asses or 4 sestertii = 1 denarius ... ", " 16 " 1000 sestertii = I sestertium . . . . . . . " " \$40.00.
3. The Sestertium (probably the genitive plural of sestertius) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria sestertia $=\$ 120.00$. When combined with a numeral adverb, hundreds of thousands (centena milia) are to be understood: thus decies sestertium (decies Hs) $=$ $\$ 10,000$. In the statement of large sums the noun is often omitted: thus sexagies (Rosc. Am. 11) signifies, sexagies [centena milia] sestertium $(6,000,000$ sesterces $)=\$ 240,000$.
4. In the statement of sums of money in cipher, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines at the sides also, hundredthousands. Thus hs. DC. $=600$ sestertii $;-$ HS. $\overline{\text { DC }}=600,000$ sestertii, or 600 sestertia; - HS. $\mid \overline{\mathrm{DC}}=60,000,000$ sestertii.

## 5. Measures of Length.

12 uncix (inches) $=1$ Roman Foot (pes, 11.65 English inches). ${ }_{1}^{1 \frac{1}{2}}$ Feet $=1$ Cubit. $-2 \frac{1}{2}$ Feet $=1$ Degree or Step (gradus).
5 Feet =r Pace (passus). - rooo Paces (mille passuum)=1 Mile.
The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet. The Jugerum, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of an English acre.

## 6. Measures of Weight.

12 uncix (ounces) $=$ one pound (libra, about 3 lb . avoirdupois).
For fractional parts of the pound, see Lexicon, art. as. The Talent was a Greek weight $=60$ libre.

## 7. Measures of Capacity.

[^2]
## APPENDIX.

Latin was originally the language of the plain of Latium, lying south of the Tiber, the first territory occupied and governed by the Romans. This language, together with the Greek, Sanskrit, Zend (old Persian), the Sclavonic and Teutonic families, and the Celtic, are shown by comparative philology to be offshoots of a common stock, a language once spoken by a people somewhere in the interior of Asia, whence the different branches, by successive migrations, peopled Europe and Southern Asia.

The name Indo-European (or Aryan) is given to the whole group of languages, as well as to the original language from which the branches sprang. By an extended comparison of the corresponding roots, stems, and forms, as they appear in the different branches, the original ("Indo-European") root, stem, or form can in very many cases be determined; and this is used as a model, or type, to which the variations may be referred. A few of these forms are given in the grammar for comparison (see, especially, p. 59). A few are here added for further illustration:

1. Case Forms (Stem V̄̄к, voice).

| Sing. | Nom | Indo-Eur. väks | Sanskr. | Greek. | Latin. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Nom. |  | vaks | \% $\psi$ | vox |
|  | Gen. | vākas | vächas |  | vocis |
|  | Dat. | vākai | vāche | oint | voci |
|  | Acc. | vâkam | vācham | \% ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | vocem |
|  | Abl. | vākat | vāchas | (gen. or dat.) | voce(d) |
|  | Loc. | vāki | vāchi | (dat.) | (dat.) |
|  | Instr. | vākā | vāchā | (dat.) | (abl.) |
| Plur. | Nom. | vākas | vāchas | \% $\pi$ ¢s | voces |
|  | Gen. | vākām | vāchām | $\delta \pi \hat{\omega} \nu$ | ocum |
|  | Dat. | vākbhyams | vāgbhyas | ó $\psi \downarrow$ | vocibus |
|  | Acc. | vākams | vāchas | orias | voces |
|  | Abl. | vākbhyams | (as dat.) | (gen. or dat.) | vocibus |
|  | Loc. | vāksvas | vāksu | (dat.) |  |
|  | Instr. | vākbhis | vāgbhis | (dat.) | (abl.) |

(For Verb-Forms, see p. 59.)
2. Cardinal Numbers.


The immigrants who peopled the Italian peninsula also divided into several branches, and the language of each branch had its own development, until they were finally crowded out by the dominant Latin. Fragments of some of these dialects have been preserved, in monumental remains, or as cited by Roman antiquarians, though no literature now exists in them; and other fragments were probably incorporated in that popular or rustic dialect which formed the basis of the modern Italian. The most important of these ancient languages of Italy - not including Etruscan, which was
of uncertain origin - were the Oscan of Campania, and the Umbrian of the northern districts. Some of their forms as compared with the Latin may be seen in the following:


Fragments of early Latin are preserved in inscriptions dating back to the third century before the Christian era; and some Laws are attributed to a much earlier date, - to Rornulus (в. с. 750) and Numa (в. с. 700); and especially to the Decemvirs (Twelve Tables, 13. c. 450 ) ; but in their present form no authentic dates can be assigned to them. Some of these are usually given in a supplement to the Lexicon. (See also Cic. de Legibus, especially ii. 8, iii. 3, 4.)

Latin did not exist as a literary language, in any compositions known to us, until about b. c. 200. At that time it was already strongly influenced by the writings of the Greeks, which were the chief objects of literary study and admiration. The most popular rlays, those of Plautus and Terence, were simply translations from Greek, introducing freely, however, the popular dialect and the slang of the Roman streets. As illustrations of life and manners they belong as much to Athens as to Rome. And the natural growth of a genuine Roman literature seems to have been thus
very considerably checked or suppressed. Orations, rhetorical works, letters, and histories, - dealing with the practical affairs and passions of politics, - seem to be nearly all that sprang direct from the native soil. The Latin poets of the Empire were mostly court-poets, writing for a cultivated and luxurious class; satires and epistles alone keep the flavor of Roman manners, and exhibit the familiar features of Italian life.

In its use since the classic period, Latin is known chiefly as the language of the Civil Code, which gave the law to a large part of Europe ; as the language of historians, diplomatists, and philosophers during the Middle Age, and in some countries to a much later period; as the official language of the Church and Court of Rome, down to the present day; as, until recently, the common language of scholars, so as still to be the ordinary channel of communication among many learned classes and societies; and as the universal language of Science, especially of the descriptive sciences, so that many hundreds of Latin terms, or derivative forms, must be known familiarly to any one who would have a clear knowledge of the facts of the natural world, or be able to recount them intelligibly to men of science. In some of these uses it may still be regarded as a living language ; while, conventionally, it retains its place as the foundation of a liberal education.

During the classical period of the language, Latin existed not only in its literary or urban form, but in several local dialects, known by the collective name of lingua rustica, far simpler in the forms of inflection than the classic Latin. This, it is probable, was the basis of modern Italian, which has preserved many of the ancient words without aspirate or case-inflection, as orto (hortus), gente (gens). In the colonies longest occupied by the Romans, Latin - often in its ruder and more popular form - grew into the language of the common people. Hence the modern languages called "Romance" or "Romanic"; viz., Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French, together with the Catalan of Northeastern Spain, the Provencal or Troubadour language of the South of France, the "Rouman" or Walachian of the lower Danube (Roumania), and the "Roumansch" of some districts of Switzerland.

A comparison of words in several of these tongues with Latin will serve to illustrate that process of phonetic decay to which reference has been made in the body of this Grammar, as well as
the degree in which the substance of the language has remained unchanged. Thus, in the verb to be the general tense-system has been preserved from the Latin in all these languages, together with both of the stems on which it is built, and the personal endings, somewhat abraded, which can be traced throughout. The following exhibit the verb-forms with considerably less alteration than is found in the other Romanic tongues:-


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M. Terentius Varro, Husbandry, Antiquities, \&cc. . . 116-2S
M. Tullius Cicero, Orations, Letters, Dialogues . . 106-43
C. Julius Cæsar, Commentaries
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'T. Lucretius Carus, Poem "De Rerum Naturâ" . . 95-52
C. Valerius Catullus, Miscellaneous Poems
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C. Sallustius Crispus (Sallust), Histories
Cornelius Nepos, Lives of Famous Commanders
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P. Vergilius Maro, Eclogues, Georgics, Enneid
Q. Horatius Flaccus, Satires, Odes, Epistles
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T. Livius Patavinus (Livy), Roman History
P. Ovidius Naso (Ovid), Metamorphoses, Fasti, \&cc. . 59-A. D. 17 43-A. D. 18

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C. Silius Italicus, Heroic Poem, "Punica"
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and 21
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## ERRATA.

Page 9, paragraph 3, omit the third line.
143 , Note, erase the last two words.


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[^0]:    A Dictionary of Roots and Words supposed to have existed in the IndoEuropean tongue, with the corresponding words and derivatives in the various

[^1]:    "High on a throne of royal state, which far Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind, Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold, Satan exalted sat."

    Paradise Lost, Book II. 1-5.

[^2]:    12 cyathi=1 sextarius (nearly a pint).
    16 sextarii $=1$ modius (peck).
    6 sextarii $=1$ congius ( 3 quarts, liquid measure).
    8 congii $=1$ amphora ( 6 gallons).

[^3]:    $\dagger$ Christian writers.

